PANJĀBĪ SŪFĪ POETS

A.D. 1460-1900

Ву

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> With a Foreword by

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FOREWORD

Panjābi poetry has its own charm. Its language is more archaic than Hindī or Urdū, its imagery is drawn from country life and simple crafts. One might make a comparison with the Provençal poetry of Southern France. Provençal also is more old-fashioned than French; its poetry belongs to the countryside, to the farm, and tiny market town, and is instinct with a simplicity and sincerity that is rare in the more classical language. Panjābī poetry sings mainly of Love and God. By the Ṣūfīs these two themes are interwoven, as is explained in the Introduction.

This book presents us with studies of a series of Ṣūfī poets of the Pañjāb who wrote in the Pañjābī language. They begin with the second half of the fifteenth century and end with the nineteenth. In this period of some four centuries we find half a dozen famous saints beginning with Farīd, twelfth in spiritual succession from Shakar Ganj of Pāk Paṭan, and leading on to several others not so well known. The greatest of them all was Bullhe Shāh (1650–1758).

For these studies Miss L. Rama Krishna has ransacked a great mass of material,—manuscripts, printed poems, oral traditions, and such few essays as have been published on any of these poets.

The historical evidence she has handled cautiously and she arrives at very reasonable conclusions.

By a judicious selection of extracts, carefully transliterated and rendered in a literal but pleasing translation, the author brings out the main characteristics of each poet in turn, both as regards verse and style and as regards the doctrine or mystery he teaches. They vary from the orthodox, with a strong spiritual urge towards mysticism, to the

less orthodox and to those who so far transcend the barriers between sects and creeds that they can hardly be designated by the conventional man-made labels.

- The history of the Pañjāb during these four centuries has seen many storms and also peaceful interludes. These vicissitudes are reflected in the Ṣūfī poets though faintly. Yet for the comprehension of the period an understanding of this religious development is of great importance.
- In Pañjābī poetry the Beloved is a man and the Lover who seeks him is a woman. So in the Sūfī sense Hīr is the soul that seeks and Rājhā represents the Divine Beloved.

In this book Truth is the ideal pursued along the dusty tracks of research by a Panjābī woman.

A. C. WOOLNER

PREFACE

This thesis is a humble attempt to discuss in a brief but comprehensive manner the Ṣūfī poets who wrote in the Pañjābī language. The evidence on which I have based my research was of four kinds:

- 1. Manuscripts found in public and private libraries.
- 2. Printed and lithographed books in English, Pañjābī, Urdū, and Persian.
- 3. Accounts furnished by the gaddī-nishīns.
- 4. Recitals of the kavāalīs 1 and oral traditions.

The last-mentioned source, though very rich, is full of accretions and abounds in legendary narratives. I have utilized the information furnished by it with great care. It has served rather to verify facts than otherwise.

This is the first work on Pañjābī Ṣūfī poets in English or in any other language. Though, as I have mentioned below, a few articles and booklets have been written on some of the poets treated in this thesis, yet no book or article has been written on the Ṣūfī poets collectively. My attempt has been to appreciate Ṣūfī beliefs and interpret Ṣūfī poetry as they are understood by the Ṣūfīs and the Pāñjabīs. I have tried to discuss them as methodically as possible.

The sources for the life-history and poetry of each writer have been given at the end of each chapter. In the case of those poets for whose life and poetry the sources are meagre, the information has been given in the footnotes.

Pañjābī is a language written in three different scripts, i.e. Persian, Hindī and Gurmukkhī. The Muhammadans who employ the Persian script give a Persian or Arabic

¹ Heroditary singers or musicians often attached to the tombs of the Suff saints, who recite compositions of the mystics and their own poems in praise of the saints.

X PREFACE

character to the language, and the Hindus who employ Hindī somewhat sanskritize it. The Sikhs, though they sometimes insert Sanskrit words and phrases, on the whole try to write the language as it is spoken by the masses.

•In the midst of this diversity, the work of transliteration has not been easy. The originals from which I have quoted were written in different scripts, often full of mis-spellings, and it has been extremely difficult to decide on the appropriate roman spelling. The same word has frequently occurred in different connexions; therefore it has not been possible to keep always to the same spelling.

For technical non-Pañjābī Ṣūfī terms and names I have generally followed the *Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics*, and for old Ṣūfī and Islāmic names the Urdū system of transliteration. These names, after all, are not Pāñjābī and are written as in Urdū.

The names of living people I have spelt as they do when writing in English, believing that every person has the right to spell his name as he likes.

The names of books in Indian languages have been spelt according to the system of transliteration of the language in which each book is written.

For geographical names I have followed the current EngEsh system in India with a few rare exceptions. For example 'Pañjāb' has three different forms and in order to maintain a uniform character I have throughout this work spelt it as 'Pañjāb'.

For the transliteration of the Panjābī verse I have employed Dr T. Grahame Bailey's dictionary, except for a few regional words.

For oriental words in the English translations of the original text, I have mostly followed the Panjābī pronunciation of the educated classes.

• Before I close, I should say that I am highly indebted to my teacher, Dr T. Grahame Bailey, for his very kind

suggestions and valuable advice throughout the work, but specially in the translation of the quotations from Pañjābī poetry.

The following is the complete list of the order followed ϵ in rendering the vowels and consonants for transliteration of the Panjābī poems:

ā ,, កា ch ,, ត b ,, घ i ,, ខ j ,, ਜ bh ,, ទ I ,, ਈ jh ,, ខ m ,, អ	~ *
i "fe j "a bh "s	~ *
ib se m	
1 ", ≥ m ", H	
u " 🐧 ñ., æ y., 79	
ŭ "g t "z r "a	
е " e th " в l " в	
ai " g	
o " फ्रो	
au " n n ,, z	
k "a t " s sh " #	
kh ,, \u03c4 th ,, \u03c4 f ,, \u03c4	
g ,, ਗ d ,, ਦ z ,, ਜ਼	
gh ,, w, dh ,, v, j ,, æ,	
n ,, ₹ n ,, a ~ ,, nasal vowe	l.
р " ч	
G for غ Kh for خ	•.

L. R. K.

INTRODUCTION

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF SUFIISM T. OUTSIDE INDIA

No account of Panjabi Sufiism, its poets and poetry, will be complete without a short sketch of the origin and development of Sūfīism outside India. Pañjābī Sūfīism. evidently, is a branch of the great Sufi movement which originated in Arabia, during the second century A.H. (A.D. 800). It differs a good deal, however, in details, from the original, being subjected to many modifications under the influence of Hindu religious and philosophic thought. Before following up the evolution and the final trend of Sūfī thought in the Pañjāb, it is necessary to review briefly the outstanding features of this Islāmic sect as it developed outside India.

Sūfīism was born soon after the death of the Prophet and 'proceeded on orthodox lines'.2 Its adepts had ascetic tendencies, led hard lives, practising the tenets of the Qur'an to the very letter. But this asceticism soon passed into mysticism, and before the end of the second century A.H. (A.D. 815), these ascetics began to be known to the people as Sūfīs.3 The name Sūfī was given to them because they wore woollen garments. The term, labisa'l-sūf, which formerly meant 'he clad himself in wool', and was applied. to a person who renounced the world and became an ascetic, 4 henceforward signified that he became a Sūfī. 5

5 ibid.

¹ Encyclopædra of Religion and Ethics, Vol. XII, p. 10.
2 Nichol·on in J. R. A. S., Vol. XXXVIII, 1906.
3 J. R. A. S., Vol. XXXVIII, 1906, p. 305.
4 Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, Vol. XII, p. 10. E. B. Havell, however, is of opinion that the word urna, which in Buddhist images was the symbol of 'eye divine', literally meant 'wool'. His symbolic explanation may underhe the symbol of Sūflism, sūf meaning wool. See Ideals of Indean Art pp. 50.1 Indian Art, pp. 50-1.

The early mysticism was essentially a product of Islam. and originated as a consequence of the Islamic conception of God which failed to satisfy many persons possessing spiritual tendencies. The two striking factors in the early mysticism, as Goldziher has stated,2 were an exaggerated consciousness of sin and an overwhelming dread of divine retribution. They feared God more than they loved Him. and submitted unreservedly to His Will.3 But in the beginning of the second century A.H. (A.D. 815) the Sūfī thought began to develop under the influence of Greek philosophy of Ashrākiān 4 and Dionysius. 5 Christianity. itself enveloped by Neoplatonic speculations, exercised a great influence in monastic organizations and discipline.6 Hebrew philology, to a certain extent, helped the progress of the technical vocabulary. But the Greek influence seems to have been the most powerful, because, besides philosophical ideas, the Sūfīs borrowed from the Greeks the medical science which they named uunānī or the Greek system.8 Neoplatonism developed intellectual tendencies. The civil wars and dry dogmas of the 'ulamā soon drove the intellectual Sūfīs to scepticism.9 They searched elsewhere for truth and knowledge. The search was not in vain, and soon a new school was established, different from the one already existing. It was greatly influenced by Persian religion and Indian thought, both Buddhist and Hindu. 10

¹ Its roots according to Macdonald run far back to heathen Arabia.

See Muslim Theology, pp. 124, 125.

2 As quoted by Nicholson in his article (J. R. A. S., Vol. XXXVIII, 1906). The original can be seen in Vienna Oriental Journal, Vol. XIII, No. 1, p. 35.

3 As ordained in the Qur'an.

⁴ Munshi Fani, Dabistan, Vol. III, p. 281. Shea and Troyler trans-

5 Nicholson in J. R. A. S., Vol. XXXVIII, 1906, p. 318.
6 Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, Vol. XII, p. 11.
7 Massignon, Lexique Technique de la Mystique Musulmane, pp. 51,

8 Rama Krishna, Les Sikhs, ch. i, p. 18.

9 These sceptics were mostly of non-Arabic origin, the majority being Persians and Kurds.

• 10 Professor Massignon is vehemently hostile to any Hindu influence and ignores traces of Buddhism. The admirable way in which the learned

The adherents of the new school were almost all of non-Semitic origin, their national characters were formed by the climatic and geographical position of their countries,1 and so, in spite of Semitic masters, the psychology of their own race affected their new faith. To them the doctrines of Islam seemed unphilosophic and non-gnostic, and so they felt compelled to interpret them in the light of their old faiths with which they had been in touch and which appealed to them deeply. Thus later, Sūfīism was also a psychological reaction of different peoples, especially the Persians, against the dogmas of Islām.

The latest school of Sūfīism which felt Persian and Indian influences and incorporated different glosses of Buddhism with its creed came in the forefront under Bāvazīd of Bistām, who was not attached to any old Sūfī school.2 Bistāmī's system was based on fanā or absolute annihilation in the Divine.8 Bayazīd was so captivated by the Vedantic conception of God that he used to say: 'Glory' to me, how my glory is great.'4

This school developed still further under Mansur al-Hallāj, who invented the formula Ana'l-Hagg.⁵ This Sūfīism transformed the Buddhist legends and panegyrics and introduced them into Islām. In Central Asia, where Buddhist legends were congealed around the saints, Sūfiism evolved a cult of saints. Pilgrimage, another Buddhist practice, was also introduced. Besides this, professor attempts to interpret Sūflism, i.e. only on a philological basis, is one-sided. His knowledge of Hinduism is not very deep and so his mind is prejudiced against Hindu thought. For Buddhist influence, see Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics, Vol. XII, and Nicholson's works.

1 Climate and geographical position, according to Nöldeke, the German scholar, are two very important factors in the formation of national character. See Sketches from Eastern History, p. 2.

2 Lexique Technique, p. 243.

3 He learnt Fanā bi'l tawhid from his teacher Abū 'Alī Sindī (or of Sind) to whom in exchange he taught the Hapefite capanical law (see

Sind) to whom, in exchange, he taught the Hanefite canonical law (see Lexique Technique, pp. 263-4). Nicholson also mentions this fact (see The Mystics of Islam, p. 17).

Lexique Technique, p. 246.

This is the equivalent of Aham Brahm.

borrowed the Tariga or Tarigat from the same source. Before being fanā, the Sūfī seeker must tread by slow stages the Tarigat or the path to reach Haqiqa or Haqiqat, Reality. or the goal of Union. The path comprised seven stages: repentance, abstinence, renunciation, poverty, patience. trust in God, and satisfaction.1

The Sūfīs of the Bāyazīd school were tolerant towards all and attached little importance to Islāmic dogmas. They were, therefore, considered heretics and were often hanged or exiled.2 This alarmed the adherents of the new Sufi thought and induced them to retrace their steps and reenter the fold of the old Sūfī school. The Sūfīs, in general were not popular with the powerful orthodox. To avoid the fury of the orthodox and to save their lives, all the Sūfīs thenceforward recognized Muhammad as their ideal and tried to deduce their thought from the allegorical sayings of the Qur'an.3

THE SUFIS IN INDIA II.

After the Muslim conquest of northern India, the Sūfīs began to pour into the country. This was the only peaceful. friendly and tolerant element of Islam. The Islam promulgated by the sword 4 and by aggressive 'ulamā and qāzīs could not impress the Hindus who abhorred it. But the Islam represented by the Sufis appealed to them. Almost all the willing conversions were no doubt the result of Sūfī preaching.

¹ Nicholson, The Mystics of Islam, p. 29. The Sūfī teachers do not agree as to the number of the stages. Most of them enumerate more

than seven.

² Bisṭāmī was exiled many times from his native town (see Lexique Technique, p. 247) and Manṣūr al-Ḥallāj was crucified (Massignon, La*Passion, I, pp. 9-10).

³ Bāyazīd openly declared himself the equal of the Prophet and ridiculed the Day of Resurrection, the Judgement, and the Qur'ānic paradise. See Lexique Technique, pp. 252-3.

⁴ The bold assertion of Professor Massignon that 'ce n'est pas par les guerres que l'Islām a diffusé dans l'Inde, c'est par les mystīques et par les grands ordres, Tshishtiyah Kobrawiyah, Shaṭṭāryab et Naqshbandiyah '(Lexique Technique, p. 68) shows his scenty knowledge of Indian bandiyah ' (Lexique Technique, p. 68) shows his scanty knowledge of Indian history.

Development of Sūfīism in the Pañjāb.

In the beginning, the Sufis in northern India were preachers and often joined hands with the rulers to establish their power and to convert the people to Islam.1 Their patience, tolerance and friendly spirit brought them followers from the lower grades of the Hindus, unfortunately neglected by the higher classes. To this class of Sufis belonged Faridu'ddin Ganj-i-Shakar, 'Ali Makhdum Hujwīri, and many others. But, later on, many Sufis gave up missionary work² and devoted themselves to the study of different religious systems and philosophies of the country. Mīā Mīr. Prince Dara Shikoh and Abu'l-Fazl and Fayzī belonged to this category of Sūfīs; they began to question the superiority of their own religion or to deny its authority.3 Mīā Mīr is said to have helped Gurū Har Govind many a time and to have sent him a woman, related to the Qāzī of Lahore, who liked the Guru's doctrines and had wanted to become a Sikh.4

Suffism underwent another considerable change towards the end of the seventeenth century. The intolerance of Aurangzeb and of his adherents had so much affected the spiritually and the intellectually minded amongst the Sūfīs that they were driven towards Hinduism more than before.5

¹ Shaikh 'Alī Makhdum Hujwīrī, generally known as Dātā Canj Bakhsh, followed the arms of Masa'ud, son and successor of Mahmud. (Haznavī. to Lahore, where he settled down to preach. (See Latif, History of Lahore, pp. 179-82.) There are many such examples.

2 Mr Zuhūrud-Dīn Ahmad, in his Mystic Tendencies in Islam, p. 142, writes: 'Out of the later Ṣūfīs very few appear to have given any thought to this practical aspect (conversion) of the doctrine of Islāmic Ṣūfīism.'

3 Emperor Akbar is another example; his faith in the superiority of Islām was so much shattered that he founded a new religion, Dīn-i-

Ilāhī.

¹⁸th.

4 See Latif, History of the Panjāb, p. 256.

5 No doubt the Ṣūfīs during the reign of Shāh Jahān, under the patronage of Prince Dārā Ṣhikoh, had absorbed a good deal of Hindu Vedāntic thought, but they remained, save for a few rare exceptions, within the limits of their own religion. The intolerance of the orthodox people and of the Emperor Aurangzeb, however, later on compelled them to speak freely against Islāmic dogmas, etc., and to turn more towards Hindu religion with real feeling than they had done before. Both Ināyat and Rulbe Shāh were born during this period. Bullhe Shah were born during this period.

Hindu Vedantic thought overpowered their beliefs, Bhagvatism influenced their ideas, and it was a surprising fact that in the Panjab, the stronghold of Islam, Mussulman . mystics held the view that save God there was no reality: all else, therefore, became illusion or the Hindu māuā.1

The doctrine of transmigration and reincarnation was soon adopted and was afterwards supplemented by the theory of karma.2 Again Muhammad, who remained the perfect model of Man for the Sūfīs of other countries, was not necessarily the ideal of the Pañjābī Sūfī. The philosophically-minded sometimes ignored him, at other times allotted to him the same place as they gave to the prophets of other religions.³ For the orthodox and popular Sūfīs he nevertheless remained somewhat higher than the other prophets, but not in the same way as before. He became the hero of their poetry as Krishna is the hero of the Bhacavata-lore.4 The condemnation of idols, which had .not been very vehement even in the sixteenth century. ceased altogether now. Muhammadan mystics accepted them as another way of adoring the Universal Lord.⁵ The Sufis often abstained from eating meat and practised the doctrine of ahimsā by loving all life, animal and human.6

The Qur'an, which could not be dispensed with and was held in great veneration by the early Sūfis, was now placed on the same level with the Vedas and the Puranas.7

Last but not the least, it should be mentioned here that the principle of religious tolerance was advocated by many

¹ Dabistān, Vol. III, p. 281. 2 Kānūn-t-'I-hq, Vol. I, lāfī, 2 and 37. 'The doctrine of karma which is alien to Sūfī-in' (The Mystics of Islam, p. 19) became now one of its doctrines.

³ Seo the postry of Bullhe Shāh, specially / aji vo of Sar Buille Shāh.

4 See the Bārāmīh of Karīm Balhsh, ch. ix.

5 Sāhibjānī, a celebrated Ṣūlī of the seventeenth century, performed the pājā in the house of alols (Dabistān, Vol. III. p. 302). The Paājābi Ṣūlī fortunately did not go to that extreme but considered both temple and mosque the same. When he had attained the stage of understanding he even ceased to go to the mosque. His temple and mosque were everywhere. See Bullhe Shāh, Qānān-i-'Ishq, kāfī 58.

6 Dabistān, Vol. III., p. 302.

7 Qānān-i-'Ishq, kāfī 76.

11 sies who denounced fanaticism and admitted freedom of 12 gious beliefs.1

The above were the new developments in Ṣūfīism on I jābī soil. They were, however, not the chief characteratics of every Ṣūfī's teachings. These new developments, on the other hand, helped in the classification of the Ṣūfīs. The jūfīs of the Panjāb may be classed into three schools of the unit:

- 1. The Orthodox School—The Ṣūfīs of this school believed in conversion from one religion to another. They held that the Qur'ān was the best book revealed and that Muḥammad was God's greatest prophet on earth. Though they released different religions, yet they believed Islām to be the only true creed. To this class of Ṣūfīs belonged I'avīd Ṣūnī and 'Alī Ḥaidar.
- 2. The Philosophic School—The Ṣūfīs of the philosophic is lool were speculators and thinkers. They had absorbed the essence of Vedānta so well that to them differences of religion, country, and sect were immaterial. They abhorred regulations and the dry dogmas of all religions. They cisplayed best the essence of pantheistic Ṣūfīism. They innoved conversion and were chiefly responsible for establishing unity between the faithful of various religions. Bulthe Shāh belonged to this school.
- 3. The Popular School—The adherents of this school were men of little or no education. These people collected the beliefs and superstitions of various creeds, and preached and practised them. Muhammad remained their only prophet and the $Qur'\bar{a}n$ their best book, but they provided a place for all other prophets and teachers in their long list of saints and angels. They were popular with the lower classes of both Hindus and Muslims. To the Hindus they preached the $Qur'\bar{a}n$ and the superstitions of Islām, while to the Muhammadans they preached the popular beliefs and

¹ See the work of Bähū and Bullhe Shāh.

superstitions of both. As they were apt to change with the times and conditions, they were dangerous equally to Islam and to Hinduism. To this class belonged Fard Fagir and many others.

Pañjābī Sūfī Poetry

The Sūfīs of the Panjāb, like the Sūfīs of other parts of India, wrote for centuries together in the Persian language.1 They copied the phraseology, the similes, and in fact, the whole system of Persian prosody and rhetoric in its entirety. Later on, the Sūfīs began to write in Urdū. But this Urdu looked for guidance to Persia and was so much overlaid by Persian vocabulary, phraseology, and jeux de mots,2 that it was really Persian diluted by an Indian language. The national culture was thus paralysed, and , national sentiments and thoughts were allotted a secondary place in their compositions. It was only in the middle of the fifteenth century that the initiative to write in the language of the people, i.e. Pañjābī, was taken by a saint of the Cishtī order of the Sūfīs.3 This initiator was Shaikh Ibrāhīm Farīd, a descendant of Farīdu'ddīn Ganj-i-Shakar of Pak Patan. His example was followed by many, of · whom Lal Husain, Sultan Bahū, Bullhe Shah, 'Alī Haidar, and Hāshim are the outstanding and well-known figures. A considerable amount of fragmentary Panjābī Sūfī poetry, of various authorship, has also been found.4 A few of these poems contain the names of the writers, but not much more. We will speak of this poetry elsewhere.

Sarkar, History of Aurangzeb, Vol. III, p. 387.
 The grammatical system, however, was Indian.
 With the exception of a few poems ascribed to Shakar Ganj, no trace of Şūfī poetry is found before Ibrāhīm Farīd. The poems said to be of Shakar Ganj are, as we shall see later on, not his.
 From some neglected and worm-esten and torn manuscripts in a private libraries, and from some lithographed books not vary much read

private libraries, and from some lithographed books not very much read by the public.

The Idea' of the Sufi Poet

The ideal of the Pañjābī mystic poet was to find God in all His creation and thus attain union with Him. This union or annihilation in God was to be fully achieved attain death, but in some cases it was gained while living. The Pañjābī Ṣūfī, like any other mystic in the world, call-fod his Beloved. But the Beloved, who in Islāmic countries was both masculine and feminine, here became masculine.

In Pañjābī Ṣūfī poetry, therefore, God is the Beloved and the Ṣūfī, or the human soul, the woman separated from her lover by illusion or māyā. The Ṣūfī soul at times wails, then cries and yearns for union with the Beloved. The Ṣūfī poet in the Pañjāb generally refers to three stories of perfect love in his poetry. They are the love tales of Hīr Rājhā, Sassī Punnū, and Sohṇī Mahīvāl. These tales of perfect love which end tragically are popular with all l'añjābīs.

In all the three, the heroines, Hīr, Sassī and Sohṇī who spent their lives in sorrow, always yearning to meet their respective lovers, were united with them in death. For a Ṣūfī these tales 4 have a spiritual significance. The heroines stand for the Ṣūfī (the soul) and the heroes for God (the Beloved sought). After the Ṣūfī has attained union with God he is no more Hīr 5 but becomes Rājhā, because. for him all differences vanish away and he sees Rājhā (God)

¹ Union gained while hving was of two natures, partial and complete. A partial union was possible when the Sūfi was in a state of supreme eastary. The complete union was attained (in very rare cases) when all consciousness of self was lost and the mystic lived ever after in and with the Universal Self.

² In Persian poetry, for example, the Beloved is both Laila an ...
Mainu.

³ Of these Hir and Rājhā and Sassi and Punnū in all probability were of Indo-Scythian origin, but the poets have overlaid them with Muslim colours and superstitions.

Of the three, the Hir and Rājhā tale is the most important, and has been written by many poets, the best written up to date being Hī/ot Vāre Shāh or Wāris Shāh.

as much in his own self as in the external world. The Sufi poetry consequently is full of poems, songs, and hymns praising the Beloved, describing the pain and sorrow inflicted by separation, and ultimately the joy, peace and knowledge attained in the union.

III. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PAÑJĀBĪ SUFĪ POETRY

We now proceed to examine the chief characteristics of Pañjābī Sūfī poetry. Foreign invasions and political changes retarded its growth in towns and cities. Its torch consequently was kept burning in the villages. Having been evolved in the villages, it lacks that point of extreme elaboration to which Sufi poets carried other languages. such as Persian and Urdū. Mysticism being more predominant than materialism in Panjābī Sūfī poets' temperaments, all complexity of expression, the artificial and ornate style, the jingle of words and bombastic language is missing from it. The chief effort of the poets was to give direct expression to their pious feelings in as brief a manner as possible. The vocabulary, similes and technical terms were confined to home trades, cottage industries, and the prevalent mythological ideas 2 and social customs. This should not, however, indicate that the language is crude and vulgar. No. the great anxiety to convey the devotional emotions correctly often imparted a sort of beauty and sweetness rare to the artificial Urdu poetry. Similes were taken from · everyday life and were used with skilful restraint and proceeded in order. The result was that though this poetry lacked dazzling brilliancy and poetic conceit, it always maintained dignity, order, and sincerity. To sum up, it

² This in no way signifies that the poets believed in them. They nade use of them to bring home to the people their deeply mystic the ught in a simple manner.

Aurangzeb considered the Sūfīs as heretics and was extremely larsh to them. Provincial governors and princes of the royal blood often followed his example during his reign, and afterwards foreign invasions by Nādir Shāh and Aḥmad Shāh were also responsible, in great measure, for inflicting cruelties on them.

be stated here that, as the guiding principle of Panjābī Ṣūfī poetry was the subordination of the parts to the whole, its chief merit lies exclusively in its beauty of fundamentals and not in its details.

Verse-forms

The principal forms of Panjābī Ṣūfī verse are the illowing:

Kāfī. This name is borrowed from the Persian kafiya (meaning rhyme), and is applied to Pañjābī Ṣūfī poetry generally. Usually it is a poem on the divine attributes and sometimes on different Ṣūfī beliefs. Kāfīā are found in different chandās, mostly prākrit, and in the rāgas of the Pañjābī musical system.¹

 $B\bar{a}r\tilde{a}$ $m\bar{a}h$ is an account of the twelve months of the Pañjābī year. The poet describes the pangs of divine separation in each of these months. At the end of the twelfth month he relates the ultimate union with the Almighty. Almost all Ṣūfī poets have composed a $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}h$.

Athora or a description of eight days. For seven days the seeker waits anxiously for God. Then when the last hope is fading he finds himself in the divine embrace on the eighth day.

Siharfi is an acrostic on the alphabet. It is not found. in any other Indian language. As it is not of Persian or Arabic origin we conclude that it is a Panjābī form. The oldest verse of this kind is found in the Adi Granth of the Sikhs and was composed by Arjuna Dev.² Later on it appears to have become a popular verse-form of the Ṣūfīs. Some of them wrote more than two or three sīharfīs.³ Sīharfī, precisely, is not a short poem but is a collection

n aipnaoet 3 Hāshim and 'Alī Ḥaidar each wrote about half a dozen sīharfīs.

¹ Though the basic principles of the Pañjābī musical system are the same as those of the Indian system, yet it differs a good deal in details.
2 It is known as Bāvan Akharī on account of the 52 letters of the

of short poems. The letters of the alphabet are taken consecutively, and words whose initials they form are employed to give metrical expression to the poet's ideas. Here is an example:

• Alif allāh cambe di būţī murshid man mere vice lāi hū Nafī asbāt dā pāṇī mālī sī rahe rage har jāi hū Andar būtī mushk macāyā jā phullan pai āi hū Jīvē murshid kāmil bāhū jaī eh būtī lāī hū 1

Alif: Allāh is like the plant of $camb\bar{a}^2$ which the preceptor planted in my heart, O He, by water and gardener of negative and positive (respectively) it remained near the rag^3 and everywhere, O He, it spread fragrance inside when it approached blossoming, O He, may the efficient preceptor live (long) says Bāhū, who planted this plant, O He.

There do not seem to have been any hard and fast rules about siharfi. Generally a letter has four lines, each consisting of two tukks, but sometimes a letter may have five, six or more such lines.4 Some poets wrote a number of such poems for each letter. For example, if the letter is alif, the first line of each such poem will begin with alif.

As a rule a sīharfī is written in praise of the Beloved (God) and his attributes, but sometimes it is written to relate some legend, historical or imaginary.⁵ In Sūfī literature, however, we have found only one such sīharfī.8

.The siharfis of the Muhammadans are on Arabic or Persian alphabets. They did not compose any on the nāgarī or Panjābī alphabets, though Hindus of different sects have written siharfis on the Arabic and Persian alphabets.7

1 Majmū a Abyāt Sulţān Bāhū.

² Jasmino.

3 Shāh rag or rag is the great vein found in the neck and considered by the Panjābī Sufī to be nearest his mind.

4 Haidar's sīharfīs are noted for this.

⁵ Panjābī poets other than Şūfīs, both Hindus and Muhammadans,

have written many such siharfis.

6 This siharfi, written at Gujrat by Muhammad Din, describes the life of a Sufi Murid. It cannot be more than fifty years old.

7 See sīharfīs of Gangā Rām and that of Sāī Dās, both on the Arabic alphabet.

Qissā is another form of Ṣūfī verse. It is generally a tragic story of two young people who love each other madly. They are separated by parents and cruel social conventions to which they pay little attention, and disregarding them try to meet each other. This disregard brings misforture and so they die, ultimately to be united in death for eternity. Some qissās are composed on the sīharfī principle, others are composed of baīts, sometimes called ṣlokas.

Baīt is the corrupted form of the Arabic word bait.¹ It is a sort of couplet poem. has very few rules and therefore has a good deal of variety. It is very popular with the Panjābīs of all classes.

 $Dohr\bar{a}$ is another form of $\S\bar{u}f\bar{\imath}$ verse. It is not the Hind $\bar{\imath}$ doh \bar{a} but resembles closely the *chand*. It has four *tukks*, all rhyming in the same manner. This was the favourite verse-form of Hāshim.

There is another form of verse common to all Panjābī religious poetry, called $v\bar{a}r$. Originally $v\bar{a}r$ meant a dirge $(v\bar{a}r)$ for the brave slain in battle. But then it began to be employed in songs composed in praise of the Almighty God or some great religious personage.² It is composed of various stanzas called $paur\bar{\imath}s$, literally 'steps', which are sung by minstrels at religious shrines.

IV. THE PLACE OF PAÑJĀBĪ ṢŪFĪ POETRY IN PAÑJĀBĪ * LITERATURE

A good number of Panjābī Ṣūfī poets made attempts to create friendly feelings between the different communities by harmonizing the opposing systems. For this reason their poetry became clear to all sections of the Panjābī people. Besides, from the literary point of view also it deserved and was allotted a very high place. It retains the

Maīyā Singh's Pañjābī Dictionary.
 For example, the famous Vārs of Bhāī Gurdās in praise of the Sikh
 Gurūs.

to your at noth Hindus and Mussulmans and circulates among the masses in the form of songs, proverbs, and hymns even to this stay. In short, without this strain, Panjābī literature - would be poor and devoid of a good deal of its beauty and Library narm.

Here he shall give explanations of those few words that are used in their original forms in our discussion of the Sufi noets.

> Caddi-nishin: 2 one who occupies the spiritual seat t a saint; a spiritual successor.

M "id: a disciple.

Mushid: a preceptor or a teacher.

Pir: murshid.

Khulīfā: chosen successor of a teacher; a successor. · l'es: nuptial festivals held at Sūfī shrines. r nuptials signifies the union of the Sūfī with

tod.

Rehāv: chorus; refrain or the first verse of a song ndicating the musical tune to which the remainder is to be sung.

Anturā: a poem or song excepting the refrain.

It is been mentioned above that the Pañjābī Sūfīs in their compositions employed, except for a few technical terms and words concerning tasawwif borrowed from Arabic and Persian, the vocabulary and terms of local trades and cottage industries. In the Panjab as elsewhere the villages and towns were self-supporting units.3 All the accessities of life in those times were produced by the people themselves. The Sūfī poetry which was nursed in the towns and villages therefore bore strong impressions of

¹ Nānak is the only non-Ṣūfī whose verse is esteemed in a like

namer by the Panjibi people.

The office of gaddi-nishin, which formerly was bestowed on one of the disciples, later on became hereditary in the families of the saints. Almost all gaddi-nishins now inherit the seats as their birthright.

We mean the period when machine-made things were not imported than and daring which the Sift recent was commoned.

from abroad, and during which the Sufi poetry was composed.

Its surroundings. The most important industry of the Pañaso, which flourished more or less in every village, too it, and city, was the cotton industry. This cotton as a lacture comprised three processes:

- 1. Cleaning and carding of cotton and making small rolls ready for spinning. This was done by both men and women.
- 2. Spinning, turning cotton into yarn, done entirely by women.
- 3. Weaving, done by men, though often feminine aid was procured.

The Sūfīs made ample use of the vocabulary of this industry and took similes from it. We give below the vocabulary relative to cotton manufacture, which may be of help to those who are interested in Pañjābī Ṣūfī poetry.

The first process, cleaning of cotton:

Tumbṇā: to open the cocoons by hand. This operation was generally performed by the womenfolk.

Velnā: the instrument used for separating the seeds.

Velavī: one who works on the velņā.

Jhambhṇā or Piñjṇā: to card cotton.

 $Pe\tilde{n}j\tilde{a}h$ or $Pi\tilde{n}j\tilde{a}h$: cotton carder.

Punni: a small roll of carded cotton prepared for spinning.

The second process, spinning: To the Panjābī Ṣūfī the world was a spinning-wheel and his own self or soul the young girl who was supposed to spin and prepare her dowry. His good actions were like spinning, and the yarn thus spun was his dowry which, like the young girl, he would take to the husband (God). As a husband loved and lived happily with the wife who brought him a dowry and was qualified

¹ Mr Baden Powell, writing as late as the end of the nineteenth century, said that 'it is impossible to exclude any city or town from the list of cotton manufacturing localities in the Panjäb'. Quoted by C. M. Birdwood in The Industrial Arts of India, p. 244.

in spinning, so did God love the Sūfī who died with a good account (karma or actions) and possessed qualities that would befit a soul striving for good. But like that obstinate and short-sighted girl who, ignoring the future consequences, spent her time in games and replied to her mother's remonstrances by stating that one part or the other of the spinning-wheel was out of order, the ignorant Sūfī made excuses for his indulgence in worldly pleasures. In the end, like the idle young girl, he was ignored by the Beloved and union was denied him. Thereupon he bewailed his sorrow and described the pangs of Divine separation. Here is the vocabulary:

Carkhā: a spinning-wheel.

Carkkharī: the wheel of the spinning-wheel on which the thread turns.

Eair: the network of cord which bridges the two sides of the carkkharī and on which the thread turns.

.ilāhl or Māhal: thread that connects the carkkharī with the spindle.

 $\mathcal{A}atth\bar{\imath}$ or $\mathcal{H}atth\bar{a}$: the handle that turns the wheel.

 $Man l.\bar{a}$: circular beads used as pivots for the spindle.

Camarī: a small object made either of leather or of dry grass, which fits in the two pillars of the spinning-wheel and through which the spindle passes.

Munnā: a pillar of the spinning-wheel which holds the spindle.

Takkļā or traklā: spindle of the spinning-wheel.

Tand: thread spun on the spinning-wheel.

Challi or Mudda: a hank of spun yarn.

¹ In those days spinning was the greatest accomplishment of a young girl. Anyone not qualified in the art was looked down upon by her husband and members of his household.

Triñan or Triñjhan: a party of young girls or women for spinning in competition; a spinning-bee.

Katiņā: to spin.

Bharotā or Chikkū: a small basket to hold the hanks.

The third process, weaving:

Narā: a weaver's shuttle.

Nalī: the quill or bobbin of a weaver's shuttle.

Khad $d\bar{i}$: a loom.

Tāṇā or Tāṇī: warp.

Petā: woof.

 $M\bar{a}nd$ or $P\bar{a}n$: paste of wheat flour used to stiffen the cotton thread for weaving.

Kanghī: a heavy comb by which the threads of the woof are pressed home.

Gandh or Ghundi: a knot to unite the two ends of a broken thread.

Attī: a skein of spun cotton.

Atternā: coiling of spun thread on a small frame to make skeins.

Atteran: the frame used for coiling cotton thread.

Julāhā: a weaver.

 $Unn\bar{a}$ or $Bunn\bar{a}$: to weave.

Rangnā: to dye.

 $D\bar{a}j$: dowry chiefly consisting of dresses, the major part of which was prepared by the bride herself; a trousseau.

esides the vocabulary of the cotton industry the Sūfīs so employed the names of things in everyday use in the ricultural areas, as:

Goil: 1 a small hut of mud and grass, built on pasture land for the cowherd, or made in fields for the person who keeps watch.

¹ The world to the Ṣūfī was like a goīl for temporary stay.

Chajj: a tray of thin reeds, used for winnowing agricultural products.

Chajjlī: 1 a tray larger than a chajj and used to winnow the threshing floor.

Jhāṛū 2 or bauhkar: a broom used for sweeping the floor or to collect together grain spread in the sun.

 $Ang\bar{\imath}th\bar{\imath}:$ a small object made of iron or earth to hold fire.

Bhāmbar: 4 a flame or a big fire.

Ghund: 5 that part of a woman's veil which she throws over her face to conceal it from men.

The Influence of Sūfī Thought and Poetry on Pañjābī Literature

The influence of mystic thought and verse on Panjābī literature was tremendous. There was hardly any poet of renown who remained free from this influence. The writers of romance like Vāre Shāh or Wārīs Shāh absorbed so much of Ṣūfī ideas that people often wrongly thought them to be mystics.

Here, for example, Vare Shah speaks like a Sufi:

Parh parh ilam kazā paye karn muftī Bajh ishk de rahn majhūl mīā Parhiā ilam nā rabb dī tūm hundī Ikko ishk dā haraf mākul mīā.⁶

Reading and studying knowledge, the *muffis* give judgement, but without love they have remained ignorant, Sir; by

- ¹ A \$\tilde{\text{n}}\text{if in all humility calls himself a sweeper, and he calls the beliefs of different people the threshing floor, which he winnows to separate the right from the wrong.
 - ² Sūfī ihārū i, wisdom.
- ³ The Panjāb is extremely cold in winter and so people use angīthīs to warm themselves. The Ṣūfī's heart is an eternal angīthī full of fire, i.e. separation's pangs.
 - 4 In Şūfī language it is also love's flame which consumes the body.
 - 5 Ignorance is a Sifi's ghund.
 - 6 Hīr Vāre Shāh, p. 1.

studying knowledge the secret of God is not known, only one word of love is efficient, Sir.1

The Suff idea that love was subreme and beyond all religious and social barriers has also passed on into the entire Panjabi literature. An example here will not be out of place:

Kahindā ishk di zāt safāt nāhī
Nāhī āshkā dā mazhab din rānī
Ishk zāt kuzāt nā puchehdāī
Es ishk dī bāt acarj rāṇī.
Ishk pāk palīt nā samjh dāī
Nahī jāṇ dā kufr islām rāṇī
Amām bakhsh nā khauf hai āshkā nū
Khāh maut hoai khāh jindgāṇī.²

(He) ays for love exist no race and qualities, nor have lovers religion and creed, Queen. Love asks not high or low caste, the tale of this love is wonderful. Queen. The Lover understands not pure and impure, nor recognizes heathenism and Islām, Queen. Amām Bakhsh, the lovers have no fear whether death occurs or life remains.

The mystic belief in the instability of creation and the deception played by the illusion of this world also took deep root in Panjābī literature. It blossomed out in one form or mother. Here is an example:

Etho āyā nữ duniyā moh laidī daghe bāzī dā dhār ke bhes miyā.

Sadā nahī javāņī te aish māpe sadā nahī je bāl vares mīyā,

1 How closely the above resembles the following of Bullhe Shāh $(Q\bar{a}n\bar{u}n\cdot\dot{r}^{2}Ishq,\,k\bar{a}f\bar{i}$ 76):

Ishk di naviö navi bahar,

Ved Kurān parh parh thakke, sijjade kardığ ghas gaye matne, Nā rabb tīrath nā rabb makke, jis pāiā tis nūr panāl.

Love ever has a new season (glory). Reading and studying the Vodas and $Qur'\bar{a}n$ (they) are tired. By bowing in obeisance the forehead is worn out. God is neither at a sanctuary nor in Mecca. One who has found (love), his light is powerful.

Bāhū has said the same:

Pe parh parh ilam hazar katābā ālam hoye sāre hū. Hikko haraf ishk dā nā parh jānn bhule phirn vicāre hū.

(Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 6). Pe: reading and studying a thousand books, all have become knowers; one word of love they do not know to read, (hence) lost the poor ones walk astray.

2 Candar Badan, p. 7.

Sadā nahī je daultā fil ghore sadā nahī je rājiā des mīyā, Shān Muḥammadā sadā nā rūp duniyā sadā rahņ nā kālare ses mīyā.¹

here come, human beings are deluded by the world, wearing the guise of a deceiver, Sir. For ever are not youth, pleasures and parents, nor for ever stays childhood, Sir. For ever are not treasures, elephants and horses, nor for ever kings kingdoms possessed, Sir. Shāh Muḥammad, for ever in the world is not beauty, nor for ever stays the hair black, Sir.

These few examples, we hope, will be enough to show the extent of Şūfī influence on Pañjābī literature in general.

1 Qissā Larāī Singhā, p. 1.

CHAPTER I

SHAIKH IBRĀHĪM FARĪD ŞĀNĪ

(c. A.D. 1450-1575)

THE first Panjabi Sufi poet known to us is Shaikh Ibrāhīm, a famous pīr of the Panjāb. All authorities agree in saying that he belonged to the Cishti order of the Sufis and lived between A.D. 1450 and 1575.

The Cishtis of the Panjab

This order was originally founded by Abū izhāk Shāmī of Cisht. but in the Panjab it was revived in the thirteenth century 2 by Faridu'ddin, generally known as Shakar Ganj.3

The grandfather of Faridu'ddin migrated to India from Persia early in the twelfth century. Farid was born fifty years later in the village Khotwās 4 near Multān, in the year A.H. 565 (A.D. 1171-2).5 He became a disciple of Outbu'ddin of Delhi. On his master's death he inherited his patched mantle and other personal belongings. He came to settle down at Ajodhan afterwards known as Pāk Patan.6 From here he began his missionary work in the Panjab.

¹ Ann-i-Akbarī (English translation), Vol. III, p. 363. Garçin de Tassy translates it Ghanewal. 5 ibid.

6 Macauliffe states (Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 367) that the name was changed on account of a canal in which it was usual for all who visited Farid to wash their hands. This canal came to be known as Bābā Sāhib ku Pāk Paṭan or Farīd's cleansing ferry. This is not a satisfactory explanation. Ajodhan being the seat of Farid was therefore known as Pak Patan. -holy town or city.

¹ Ann.i-Akbarī, Vol. III, p. 367.
2 Rose, A Glossary of the Tribes and Castes of the Panjab, Vol. III, p. 432. 3 This title originated from a miracle performed by him. It has many versions, one of which is that he was told by his mother that the reward of prayer was sugar. She used to hide some under his prayer-c..rpct, which the boy Farid got after the prayer. One day his mother went out and he had to pray alone. After his prayer he lifted the carpet and found a great supply of sugar-a miraculous gift of God. His mother was surprised on her return home and named him Shakar Ganj or Treasury

On his death, his work was carried on by his descendants from Pak Patan, and his disciples scattered all over northern India to carry his message, always looking to Pak Patan as their spiritual centre. Shaikh Ibrāhīm was the eleventile Gescendant of Faridu'ddin. The following is the genealogical order:2

> Hazrat Bābā Farīdu'ddīn Ganj-i-shakar Diwan Badr-ud-Din Sulaiman Dīwān 'Alā-uddīn Mauj-i-Darva Diwān Mu'izzuddīn Pir Fazl-ud-din Khwāja Dīwān Munāwar Shāh Pir Diwān Bahā-uddin Harūn Pīr Shaikh Ahmad Shāh Pīr Atā-ullāh Khwāja Shaikh Muhammad Shaikh Ibrāhīm Farīd Sānī

Not much is known about the birth and childhood of Ibrāhīm. There is complete silence with regard even to the date of his birth. The Khulāsat-ul-Tawārīkh states that he died in A.H. 960 or A.D. 1554 at Sirhind where he was buried after a spiritual reign of forty-two years.3 But both the Javāhir-i-Farīdī and the Gulzār-i-Farīdī relate that he died at Pak Patan in the year A.H. 959 or A.D. 1553-4.4

In Pak Patan there is still a tomb known as that of lbrāhīm. We therefore believe that he died at Ajodhan as the two above-mentioned biographies state.⁵ He is said to have reigned as the pir for forty-two years, and therefore his birth must have taken place some time in the middle or the end of the fifteenth century.

¹ The sect maintained its integrity till very late, when it was split into two sub-orders, the Nızāmiās and the Şabīrias, the former from Nizāmu'ddīn Awliyā, a disciple of Farīdu'ddīn, and the latter from Şabīr, cousin and son-in-law of the founder (see Rose's Glossary, Vol. III. o. 432).

² See Gulzār-i-Farīdī.

³ As quoted by Macaulife in his Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 348.

⁴ Jawāhir-i-Farīdī, p. 294 and Gulzār-i-Farīdī, p. 81.

5 We have been unable to find any trace of his tomb in Sirhind. In mone of the old biographies of saints do we find that he died at Sirhind.

studies he was initiated into the Cishtī order and went studies he was initiated into the Cishtī order and went shrough the spiritual training of a Ṣūfī. In course of time he succeeded his father Khwāja Shaikh Muhammad in 11. 916-17 and became the gaddī-niṣhīn. He seems to have resembled Farīd closely in person and in sanctity, and therefore was named Farīd Ṣānī or Farīd the Second. He had frequent interviews with Hindu saints and reformers, and with dervishes of Islām. The titles and appellations which Ibrāhīm bore show the great influence he wielded over the masses. He was called

Farīd Şānī or the Second, Şāliş Farīd or Farīd the Arbitrator. Shaikh Ibrāhīm Kalān or Ibrāhīm the Elder. Bal Rājā or the mighty king.

This last named is a Hindu appellation applied only to a person who holds great spiritual power. To the Hindus and the masses he was also Shaikh Brāhm. Brāhm is a corrupt form of Ibrāhīm. Ibrāhīm's popularity amongst the Hindus of his time is rather amazing.

A long residence in India, a sincere study of her religions and philosophies, and the political environment had weakened the proselytizing zeal which animated the soul of Farid the First.⁵ The Şūfīs were not very popular with the rulers, and so they could be friend the cause of the people, and ensure their own safety against the tyranny of a fanatical ruler only by their influence over people belonging

¹ Javahir-e-Paridi, p. 202.

² He had two meetings with Nūnak (see Janam Sākhī Bālā and the Purātan). The (tulzār-t-Farīdī 15 full of accounts of such interviews.

³ These titles and appellations we have collected from the Gulzār-i-> l'arīdi's pages. Macaulife also mentions them in his book, see Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 102.

¹ The Gulzār-i-Farīdī (p. 79) also calls him Brāhm or Baram. The Janam Sākhīs all call hum Brāhm, see Bālā-Janam Sākhī, p. 543.

⁵ Even Farid the First was not altogether engaged in the work of conversion. His efforts were often supplemented by two factors:

⁽¹⁾ The political domination left the Hindus helpless, especially economically. Economic difficulties therefore compelled them to embruce Islām, which at once raised their status.

to different creeds. This moral support the emperor was not strong enough to uproot.

Thus the ('ishtīs of Pāk Patan were the pīrs or saints of the Pañjāb more than anything else. At their shrines flourished that Islāmic philosophy which had been coloured by Hindu thought and the cult rituals.2 Such was the state of the Cishti order when Ibrahim ascended the seat of Farīdu'ddīn at Pāk Patan. The Gulzār-i-Farīdī and other Sūfī books praise Ibrāhīm for his faculty of karāmāt or miracles.

Though 'reliance on miracles is one of the "veils" which hinder the elect from penetrating to the inmost shrine of the Truth',3 yet no Sūfī in the world could be termed a saint unless he performed miracles. The marvellous incidents and fabulous legends relating to Sūfī saints are often odious and fantastic. Shaikh Ibrāhīm was no exception to this rule and had his miracles. We will quote here two miracles which will illustrate the belief of the people in his power and his control over matter and spirit, and pass over the remainder in silence.

A thief entered his house with the intention of stealing. but God, being unwilling to see his devotee suffer, struck

(2) The social disintegrity of the Hindus supplied him with converts. If a man of high caste ate or drank at Farid's or at any Mussulman's house he was excommunicated, and in the absence of 'repentance' was forced to become a Sufi, hence a Mussulman. The members of the neglected lower classes also professed the Islāmic creed.

classes also professed the Islamic creed.

1 An interesting example of this is given in Tarīkh-i-Daudi (E. & D. ed., Vol. IV, pp. 439-40). Mīš Abdullāh of Ajodhan forbade Sultān Sikandar Lodi to carry out his resolve to massacre the Hindus assembled at Kurūkshetra. The Sultan was thereupon enraged and, putting his hand on his dagger, exclaimed: 'You side with the infidels, I will first put an end to you and then massacre the infidels.' But the personality and the popularity of Abdullāh soon appeased his wrath and he gave up both his wealves. the popularity of Abdullah soon appeased his wrath and he gave up both his resolves, i.e. to massacre the saint and the infidels. Later on, inspired by the policy of Aurangzeb, the hereditary incumbents of Pāk Paṭan changed the creed of tolerance advocated by their predecessors, and became the supporters of fanaticism of which Farid the First had disapproved. See Rama Krishna, Les Sikhs, p. 191.

2 Garçin de Tassy finds Hindu influence even at the end of the nineteenth century: see La Religion Musalmane dans l'Inde.

3 Junayd as quoted by Nicholson in The Mystics of Islam, p. 131.

him blind. Early in the morning the Shaikh ordered his servant to fetch water for his ablutions. The servant saw the blind thief and informed his master. The thief confessed his guilt and begged the pir's pardon. Thereupon the saint . prayed and the sight of the thief was restored. He then gave up thieving and became a murīd of the pīr.1

Another legend is that in a season of drought the pir was besought to save the people from disaster. Pitying the sufferers, he took off his turban and whirled it round, upon which rain fell in torrents.2

The Shaikh was held in esteem amongst the distinguished holy men of those days. He had various disciples, the most famous of them being Shaikh Salīm Cishtī of Fatehpur.8

The Literary Work of Farid

Ibrāhīm's literary works in Pānjābī consist of a set of kāfīā and a hundred and thirty shaloks. Besides these, we have been able to trace a Nasīhat-Nāmā among the Pañjāb University manuscripts.4 The style of this is akin to that of Farid and so is the language. It is a book on religious injunctions tinged with Sūfī beliefs. It clearly indicates that he belonged to the orthodox school. The remainder of Farid's verse is all found in the $\bar{A}di$ Granth. The Gulzār-i-. Faridi says that this verse was inserted in the Granth by Gurū Nānak with the permission of the Pīr Shaikh Brāhm. The same authority states that only after having seen the book which Nanak submitted to his inspection did the Shaikh give permission to add his savings.5

Historically, the Granth was compiled by Gurū Arjun and not by Nānak, and if the permission was obtained it would have been the fifth Gurū who procured it from the

Gulzār-i-Farīdī, p. 80.
 Macauliffe, Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 358.
 MS. 374, Folios 2-14, 743. ² Jawāhir-i-Farīdī, p. 294.

⁵ Gulzār-i-Farīdī, p. 80.

reigning pir. In their correspondence the Gurus addressed each other as Nānak 2 and this may have led the author of the Gulzār-i-Farīdī to make the mistake.

Shaikh Ibrāhīm's Pañjābī poems, though they had won him the love of the people, failed to procure him the praise of the learned, who looked disdainfully at the poets of the living languages and refused to recognize them as such. The Paniabis therefore should thank Gurū Arjun for having written down a major part of the verse of this first Pañiābī Sūfī poet.

As has been mentioned above, Farid Sani was the name conferred on Shaikh Ibrāhīm for his high sanctity. however, employed it as his nom de plume.3 The common belief, therefore, is that the verse of Farid in the Adi Granth was composed by Farid the First. Macauliffe is certain that it was Shaikh Brāhm who composed the shaloks bearing the name Farid in the Granth'. But Bābā Buddh Singh is of opinion that they are mixed compositions of the Farids, the First and the Second. The argument of Macauliffe that Farid the First did not live in the time of Nanak and. since Nānak had interviews with Ibrāhīm, the shaloks must be the Shaikh's, is not very strong or logical. In the Granth we find the hymns of those saints who lived long before Nānak and also of those with whom he never had any personal relations. Bābā Buddh Singh 5 bases his argument on two facts: that since Amīr Khusro who came to India could write in Hindī, why could not Farīdu'ddīn who was born and brought up in the Panjāb write in Panjābī? And some of the shaloks, such as

> Farīdā rotī merī kāth dī lāvan merī bhukkh, Jinhā khādhīā coprīā soī sahange dukkh.

Farid Sani died in A.H. 959 (A.D. 1553-4) early in the reign of Akbat, while Gurü Arjun compiled the Granth much later (A.D. 1581-1606).
 Munshi Fāni says that Gurü Har Gobind when he wrote to hun signed his name as Nanak. See Dabistān, Vol. 11, p. 236
 Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 357.

⁴ ibid.

⁵ Hans Cog, p. 69

I do, my bread is of wood and ratisfies my hunger; those who ru' hittered bread will undergo suffering,

karre micate the incidents which took place in the life of farid the First and so must be his. Thus he makes Farid and Hrahim the conjoint authors. The first of these two areas is not at all convincing, and the second can be at the little by the fact that the incidence of the founder's file were versified by his descendant and successor.

Though his argument is equally weak we agree with Macauliffe, as his conclusion has the support of one of the snalots of Farid found in the Granth. It says,

Sekh hayātī jag nā koī thiru rahīā Jisu āsanī ham haitthe kete bas gaīā.¹

1) Shaikh no life in the world is stationary. The seat on which I am seated has been occupied by many.

From the above poem we understand that the author not Faridu'ddin but a descendant, who was occupying his spiritual sear, hence Farid the Second.

Language and Style

Shaikh Ibrāhīm preached in Panjābī to the congregations assembled at Pāk Paṭan.² His language was, therefore, a Panjābī comprising various dialects, and was simple and natural. The one dialect which is strikingly prominent in his language is Multānī. The influence of Lahndī is also visible. A few words of Hindī and Persian are found in his verse, but they were rarely words which the Panjābī people could not understand. He composed a few poems in Hindī which fact proves that he had a good command over that language. But we cannot help stating that his verse is at its best in Panjābī. Though his poetry is natural, verceful, and impressive, it lacks that intense feeling which

¹ Am Granth, Asi Sikh Farid, shalok 5.

⁻ The custom prevails even at present but in a very degenerate

characterizes the poetry of Husain. Except for this want of feeling, it is expressive and intelligible, and demonstrates the restlessness of the author's soul for the Divine Union. His verse, though it does not conform to the Persian rules of prosody, is overlaid with similes, very human, and sometimes incoherent and unsuitable for the Divine Beloved. in Persian poetry. Considering that he was the first Sūfī who replaced Persian by his mother-tongue this defect can be ignored. His highest merit lies in the fact that he was the first Mussulman saint who composed verses in Pañjābī and was the pioneer of Pañjābī Sūfī poetry.

Religious Tenets

Unity of the Godhead and Muhammad's religion being the only true way to attain salvation was the creed of the orthodox Sūfī missionaries, like the pioneers of the Qādirī and the Cishtī orders in India.

But as tolerance was their motto they soon became the friends of the people. They influenced the people's thought and were themselves influenced in turn, and began to doubt the asserted monopoly of the Muslim path to God. Such appears to have been the state of Shaikh Ibrāhīm's mind when he became the pir of Pak Patan. He could not openly criticize the established beliefs of his order as he was the hereditary incumbent and derived his power and prestige therefrom, but this could not prevent his holding some personal views. The uncertainty as to whether Islam or Hinduism was the true path perplexed him greatly. During one of his interviews with Nanak he says:

1kk Khudāī duī hādī kehrā sevī kehrā haddā raddī.1

There is one Lord and two teachers: 2 which shall be served (adopted) and which censuring rejected?

Janam Sālhī (Bālā), p. 544.
 Muḥammad and the Hindu avataras.

Nanak replied

Nāhib ikko rāh ikk, ikko sevie aur raddī dūjā kāhe simarie jammē te mar jāī. ikko simaro Nānakā jal thal rahiā samāī.¹

There is but one Lord, and one way. Adopt the one and reject the other. Why should one worship a second, who is born and then dies ' Remember Him alone, Nānak, who is present in water (seas) and on land.

The Shaikh was very pleased with the Gurū's reply. but convinced like all Ṣūfīs that a patched coat and mean appearance humbled the heart and obtained salvation, he advised:

Pār patolā dhuj karī kambalrī Pahiroī Jinī vesi Sahu milai soī ves karoī.³

Tear your clothes into tatters and wear a blanket instead. Adopt the dress by which the Lord may be obtained.

The Gurū, who had great respect for the Shaikh agreed with him that faith and devotion were the only means to reach the ideal but could not listen to this advice of Ibrāhīm. He was a staunch believer in kurma-yoga and an enemy of outward signs and symbols. He told the Shaikh that while wearing secular costume one could find the Lord, if one loved Him.⁴

Ibrāhīm could not support Nānak's view But he was extremely happy to find someone who like himself thought that there was only one way, a belief so dear to-his heart. So, while bidding farewell, he remarked: 'O Nānak thou hast found God, there is no difference between thee and Him.' This compliment illustrates faithfully how far the Ṣūfī beliefs of Ibrāhīm had changed under the later Bhāgvat influence.

¹ Janam Sākhī, p. 544.

By one, Nānak means the way of faith and devotion.
 Janam Sākhī, p. 545.
 ibid.

be the saints of the saints are one and the same. The idea that the saints are His mere reflection exists no more, for as a tide rises from deep waters and in deep waters it ebbs, similarly the saints emerge from God and in Him they merge.

Towards the end of his career Ibrāhīm appears to have set aside the remaining fanatical side of Islam. in the prescribed Sūfī code and Qur'ānic beliefs seems to have fallen into the background. The following will confirm our view by showing the change in the Shaikh's ideas:

> Farid, men carry prayer-carpets on their shoulders, wear a Sūfī's robe and speak sweetly, but there are knives in their hearts.1

His belief with regard to God and His grace is very vividly shown here:

> In the lake (world) there is one Swan (good soul) while there are fifty snares (bad souls); O True One, my hope is in Thee.

In Farid's verse there is no formal exposition of any Sufi doctrines. It comprises short love poems and couplets on religious subjects in general. Some of his poems show a strong colour of Hindu thought, specially the doctrine of ahimsā.

He savs:

Farid, if men beat thee with their fists, beat them not in return, kiss their feet and go back.2

And again:

All men's hearts are goms, to distress them is by no means good; if thou desire the Beloved, distress no one's heart.

Humility is also a great quality with the Shaikh:

Farid, revile not dust, there is nothing like it. When we are alive it is beneath our feet, when we are dead it is above us.3

The fame of Shaikh Ibrāhīm has surpassed that of the sect of which he was the spiritual head. For centuries

Sikh Religion, Vol. VI, p. 398.
 ibid., p. 394. This reminds one of the Vaisnava legend in which Bhrigu kicks Visnu while he is asleep. Visnu wakes up and begins to massage Bhrigu's foot saying that his hard body must have hurt his foot. 3 Sikh Religion, Vol. VI. p. 394.

Lettier and even to the present day, the poet has been loked upon as a saint by thousands of his countrymen he never heard the name ("ishti. Many of his couplets are on-schold words, and hundreds of completely uneducated len and women make frequent use of them. We have given nove those shaloke which are repeated in Hindu and Jusulman homes very day. They will serve as specimens this literary genius and also of his popularity.

CHAPTER II

Mādho Lāl Ḥusain (A.D. 1539-1593-4)

HUSAIN was born in A.H. 945 (A.D. 1539) in Lahore.¹ His ancestors, says the author of Tazkirā, were originally Kāyastha Hindus who embraced Islām in the time of Feroz Shāh.² But Bābā Buddh Singh is of opinion that his great-grandfather or grandfather, who became a Mussulman, belonged to the dhatā clan of the Rājpūts.³ Under what circumstances Ḥusain's family confessed the Muhammadan creed is not known. All that we know is that at the birth of Ḥusain, the family was sunk deep in poverty. His father, who was called nau shaikh 'Uṣmān, was a weaver. Ḥusain never learned this trade, but on account of his father being engaged in the industry, Fard Faqīr in his Kasab-Nāmā Bāfind-gān 5 says:

Par is kasabe de vice bahute ālam phāzal hoai Par shāh husain kabīr jo āye dargāh jā khaloai.

Though in this profession many learned ones had been, yet Shah Husain and Kabir who came (in the profession) went and stood at the door (of God).

Husain was put under the charge of Abū-Bakr at a very tender age and became a hāfiz when he was ten years old. Then Shaikh Bahlol of Ciniot (Chiniot, Jhang district), who learnt the doctrine of fanā from a Ṣūfī of Koh-Pañj-Shīr, came to Lahore and made Ḥusain his own disciple. After a few years Shaikh Bahlol returned from Lahore and left

² ıbıd

5 See Daryā-1-Ma'rifat containing the Kasab Nāmā.

¹ Tazkirā Awliyā-i-Hind, Vol. III, p. 33.

⁸ Hans Cog, p. 106. We do not think there is any such clan among the Rājpūts.

⁴ The word nau is a sarcastic prefix which was added to the names of new converts by Muhammadans.

^{• 6} Tahqīqāt-i-Cishtī, p. 43. 7 ibid., pp. 42-3.

lusain to continue his study of the Sufi practices at the shrine of Dātā Ganj Bakhsh in Lahore.2 For twelve years he served the ashes of the pir and followed the strict Our'anic discipline.3 He is said to have spent many a night in a standing posture in the river Ravi, repeating the Qur'an. At twenty-six he left that pir and became a student of Sı'd-ullāh, with whom he read many a book on Sūfīism. Some time after this, as he was coming out of the house of his teacher with his fellow-students, he thought he had found the secret of God. Happy at his success he threw in the well the Qur'an which he had in his hand, but his companions were enraged at this act of heresy. He thereupon ordered the book to come out. It came, and to the surprise of his companions it was as dry as before.⁵ Hereafter Husain, discarding all rules and regulations, began to dance, sing, and drink. He became a mystic. The excesses of Husain became scandalous and reached the ear of Shah Bahlol at Ciniot. The Shaikh was so much upset that he journeyed to Lahore to see things for himself. His talks with his disciple convinced him of his saintliness and he went back satisfied to his native town.6 Husain wore a red dress and came to be known as Lal Husain or Husain Husain was very fond of dancing and singing the Red.7 and mixed freely in the company of dancers and musicians. The Qadiris, to whose sect Husain belonged, generally loved music and dancing which, they thought, helped them in their divine contemplations, but they never went to the extreme which Husain reached. Husain shaved clean his moustache and beard and refused, according to the author of Hasanātul-'ārifīn, to accept those persons as disciples who were unwilling to shave their faces.9 This idea of Husain and

¹ See Introduction, p. xvii, n. 1. 2 Tahqīqāt-i-Cıshtī, p. 46. 3 ibid. 4 History of Lahore, p. 145. 5 This story of conversion is related in Tahajajāt-i-Uishtē, pp. 48-9.

⁶ ibid., p. 49.

⁷ Tazkirā Awliyā-1-Hind, Vol. III, p. 34, and Yād-rufta-gān, p. 58. 9 ibid., p. 47. 8 Hasunat-ul-'arrfin, p. 16.

his neglect of the religious duties of a Mussulman aroused suspicion, and some officials thought of punishing him: but by pointing out to them their own neglect of religious duties. Husain escaped panismment.1 Lal Husain was forfunate to have been born, to live, and to die during the reign of Emperor Akba, whose fondness for religious men and especially the Sufis was proverbial. Akbar, it appears from the writings of Dārā Saikoh, knew Husain. Prince Dara writes: Prince Salim and the ladies of Emperor Akbar's harem believed in his supernatural powers and entertained respect for him.' The Tahqīqāt-i-Cishtī states' that Prince (later Emperor) Salīm was greatly attached to the saint and appointed Bahar Khan, an officer, to record his daily doings. These records, which were regularly submitted for the perusal of the Prince, were later on compiled together with the sayings of the saint and were named Bahāriā. The Bahāriā is said to be replete with incidents relating to the supernatural power of the saint.

His Attuchment to Madho

Having become a Sūfī, Husain began preaching in public. A Brahman boy of Shāhdara, a village across the Rāvī, frequented these religious séances and showed keen interest in his teachings. This attracted the attention of the saint, who soon became attached to the handsome youth. This attachment developed so much and so rapidly that if on any day Mādho failed to come, Husain would walk down to his house This sort of friendship was not liked by the

¹ mid., p. 46.

² Prince Dara, as quoted by Latif. See History of Lahore, p. 145.

³ p. 52 4 We have not been successful in tracing this book in the libraries of London or of the Panjab.

⁵ Some say that he saw nim woule ne was drinking at a bar. But Mādho being a young Hindu lad could not have gone to the wine-house. The account given above, therefore, seems to be the true version. The author of Tahqīqāt-i-Cishtī relates (pp. 50-1) that Husain met Mādho while the lad went riding through the bazār in a fashionable manner. He tried in vain to possess the lad for 16 years, at the end of which period he Succeeded.

parents, who tried to dissuade their son from meeting Husain. but to no effect. Desirous of separating their child from the Sūfī they proposed to take him to the Ganges on a certain fe-tival day. When Madho informed the saint of his impending departure, he was much distressed and begged the boy not to go with his parents. However, he promised Madho a bath in the company of his parents on the appointed day. Madho thereupon refused to accompany his parents, who proceeded alone to Hardvar. After a few days the saint asked the boy to close his eyes, and when he did so, Mādho found himself on the banks of the Ganges along with his parents who had reached there by that time. After the bath he discovered that he was back in his house at Shahdara. On their return the parents confirmed their son's statement that he bathed with them on the appointed day. miracle, says tradition, so much impressed Madho that he confessed the Muhammadan faith and became a Mussulman.1 Another story about Mādho's conversion is that the attachment of Husain for Mādho was disagreeable to the parents and created suspicion in the people's mind.2 But Husain. unmindful of all, would go to the boy's house when he was prevented from visiting him. Very often the parents would tell him that Mādho was absent and Husain would return disappointed. One day when he had been refused permission to see the boy, he walked down to his house for the second time. On reaching the place he saw people weeping and wailing. On inquiry, he was told that Mādho was dead. The Fagir laughed aloud and walking to the dead body exclaimed: 'Get up. Madho, why do you sleep at this hour? Get up and see I am waiting for you.' Upon this, continues the story, Madho jumped on his feet and followed Husain out of

¹ Latif on the authority of Bahārıā, see History of Lahore, p. 145. ² Tahqūqāt-1-Cishtī says (pp. 50-1) that his relatives seeing him sleeping in the same bed with Läl Husain came to murder them both, but the power of Husain made them blind and as they could not find the door, they returned.

his parental house, never to return there again, and became a Mussulman.

Both these versions of Mādho's conversion are legendary and most probably untrue and of later origin, because how could a Ṣūfī of Ḥusain's type who disregarded traditional precepts convert his beloved friend to Islām? 1

Secondly, since Mādho did not change his Hindu name, it is certain that he was not converted to Islām.

To our mind the truth appears to have been as follows: that Mādho, convinced of Ḥusain's saintliness, was attached to him in the same manner as the saint was to him, and consequently, ignoring the rules of his own society, became his disciple and ate and drank with his spiritual guide. Such behaviour would surely have offended the conservative Hindus who, on this account, excommunicated him and turned him out of their social fold. Thus secluded, the unfortunate Mādho had no choice but to go and live with his master as his friend and disciple. Thousands of such adherents were unhesitatingly given by the Hindus to Islām and Mādho no doubt had been one of these forced converts.

Mādho later on was known as Shaikh Mādho and his name came to be prefixed to that of the saint,² who to this day is known as Mādho Lāl Ḥusain.

The love of Ḥusain for Mādho was unique, and he did all that lay in his power to please the boy. Once, seeing his co-religionists celebrating $hol\bar{\imath}^{\,8}$ and being desirous of doing the same, he brought some $gul\bar{a}l$ (pinkish-red powder) and threw it on Husain. Husain at once joined him in

¹ According to *Hasanāt-ul-'ārifīn* (p. 46) Husain is credited with having been above all religions. 'He said he was neither a Muslim nor a pagan', i.e. Hindu.

a pagan', i.e. Hindu.

² Latif on the authority of Haqqqat-ul-Fuqarā: History of Lahore,
p. 146.

³ A Hindu carnival during which people amuse themselves by throwing colour on each other.

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the fun. Basant or the spring festival, like holi, was also celebrated each year by Lal Husain to please Madho.2

Mādho Lāl Husain was held in great respect by the people, and the Hindus, though they seem to have turned Madho out of their fold, could not master their credulous heliefs in the supernatural miracle-performing power of the saint and esteemed him just as much as their Muslim brothren. The author of Tazkirā fixes the number of his followers as 90,000; but other people, he says, believed the number of his faithful to reach 1,000,000.3 The same authority is responsible for the statement that Husain's gaddis, sixteen in number, are scattered all over India.4 Four of these sixteen seats are called Garibs or the poor, the other four are named Diwans or the ministers. Three are known as Khākīs or the ash-smearers, and another four as Baihlāvals, i.e. entertainers. Nothing is said about the sixteenth 6

Husain indulged in wine, and probably it is due to alcohol that he died at the age of 53, a comparatively early age for a saint. His death occurred in A.H. 1008 (A.D. 1593) at Shāhdara, where he was duly buried.7 A few years later, as predicted by the saint.8 the grave was swept away by an overflow of the Rāvī. Thereupon Mādho exhumed the corpse and carried it to Baghbanpura, where it was buried with pompous formalities. After his death Madho was buried by his side. Latif describes the tomb as follows:

¹ Tahqīqāt-1-Cishtī, pp. 51-2.

² These festivals are still celebrated at the shrine where he lies buried along with his dear Madho.

³ Vol III, p 36.
4 The quidt nishin of the Lahore shine and his relatives are uneducated and ignorant men. They said that they possessed the biography and other books of the saint but refused to show them to us We, however, collected some kafis from the books, and verified them from the Lavvalis.

⁵ The gaddī-nishīn of the Lahore shrine is the head dīwān and is the spurtual descendant of Madho.

⁶ Tuzkuā, Awlıyā-ı-Hınd, p. 36. 7 ibid., p. 62.

⁸ History of Lahore, p. 146.

The tomb is situated north of the village of Bāghbānpurā. There are signs of two tombs on a high platform, one of Mādho and the other of Lāl Husain, the actual tombs being in an underground chamber. The platform is surrounded by a wall with a gateway to the south. Between the platform and the surrounding wall is a space left for the devotees to go round,—the platform being lined on all sides with lattice-work of red stone. North of the enclosure is a tower in which is reverentially kept the impression of the prophet's feet (Qadam-i-Rasūl) and to the west is a mosque. This mosque was constructed by Mora, a Muhammadan wife of Raniit Singh.1

Lal Husain appears to have had friendships among the holy men of his time. He was an intimate friend of Chajju Bhagat who, the tradition says, called him Shah Husain for the first time.2 He met Gurū Arjun whenever he came to Lahore. We, however, cannot find any historical evidence to support the assertion of Bābā Buddh Singh, who states that when Arjun was compiling the Adi Granth. Husain submitted his verses to him for inspection, but the Guiū, disapproving them, refused to insert them in the Granth.³ Husain's poetry, if we may be permitted to say so; is in no way inferior to that of many others found in the - body of the Granth, nor would a free Sufi like Husain care to have his verses inserted in the book of a sect then not so popular as it was to be after a few years.

His Mysticism

Ḥusain's Ṣūfīism was of a peculiar type and presented a curious medley of Persian and Indian Sūfīism. In his

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¹ ibid., p. 146.
2 It relates that after Husain had brought dead Madho to life, Chajju Bhagat addressed him as Shah (a bestower of gitts) Husain, instead of Lal Husain.

³ Hans Cog, p. 107.

nystic ideas and beliefs he was more Indian than anything elec, but in his daily life he followed the style of the Persian Sufis.

Foreign Influence

The following two traits of his character affirm the influence of Persianism.

The first trait was his addiction to liquor. Needless to say, wine-drinking and dancing in the wine-house became a part of his saintly profession. And when drunk, he would dance, sing his own poems, and preach to the crowds who gathered round him. The Indian mystic in general and the Pañjābī Ṣūfī in particular avoided wine and led simple lives, but the Ṣūfīs of Persia were often pleasure-loving people. It does not mean that they all indulged in drinking, but some of them did taste the material wine which had a symbolic meaning in their poetry.

The second obviously Persian trait was his love of a youth. As stated above, he was enamoured of Mādho. This idea of loving a youth is opposed to the Indian concept of divine love. An Indian requires no semblance to attain the Divine Beloved, and renouncing all attachment depends either on his own efforts of spiritual discipline, or, keeping faith, relies entirely on divine grace. The idea of loving a youth, originally Greek, was borrowed by the Muslims of Islāmic countries, especially of Persia. Some Ṣūfīs and some orthodox Muhammadans tell us that 'youth-love' was practised for the following reasons:

1. A young man is physically more beautiful than a woman and so he inspires the Şūfī better in the description of his Beloved.²

² This is like an artist who wants a beautiful model to paint some divine subject.

¹ The Greeks held that 'youth-love' was the only form of love worthy of a noble soul. For detuled historical development of 'youth-love' philosophy see Animachus of Colophon and the Position of Woman in Greek Poetry, by E. F. M. Benecke.

- 2. Man is a weak being and cannot altogether give up his natural desire to have a companion in life. If he chooses a woman companion he indulges his lust. Therefore not to incur the sexual sin, he takes a pleasing youth on whom he showers his love and kindness and in whom he confides.
- 3. God has no feminine attributes. He is a male and therefore to describe him and to constantly think of him, a perfect youth is desirable as a constant companion.¹

As far as poetry can help us, we find no immoral flaw in Lāl Ḥusain's love for Mādho. It had more moral than religious or philosophic significance. For him, this sort of love, being absolutely free from selfish desire, was in no way detrimental to the attainment of the Beloved, and was consequently elevating.

His Works

Ḥusain has left no poetic works. His only work is a number of $k\bar{a}f\bar{i}s$ of a highly mystic type.

His Language and Style

-. His verse is written in simple Panjābī, slightly overlaid with Persian and Arabic words. It excels in expression of thought and has a clear flow. In its simplicity and effectiveness it is superior to Ibrāhīm Farīd's Panjābī. It lacks the brilliancy of Urdū poetry but is remarkable for its just proportion of words and powerful sense of rhyme. His versification is smoother, his similes more relevant, and his words simpler but more effective than those of Ibrāhīm. His poetry is of a less orthodox type but is not as saturated with Indian thought as would be the poetry of Bullhe

¹ The opponents of Şūfiism are of opinion that, psychologically, this love for a youth could not be possible and a Şūfi kept a youth only to satisfy his animal nature.

Shāh. Like his character, his poetry is a curious mixture of Ṣūfī, Indian, and foreign thought. The essential feature of his poetry which strikes the reader is that it is highly pathetic and, piercing the heart, creates a mystic feeling.

Peculiarity of his Doctrines

Husain's peculiarity of character is also reflected in his poetry. He believes in fanā but does not seem to accept the doctrine of ana'l-Ḥaqq .without which fanā is not comprehensible. As we shall see presently, he spent his life in search of the Beloved whom he knew to be present everywhere but whom he could not see. His excessive love for Mādho also proves that he did not reach those heights which Bullhā attained.

Ḥusain believed in the theory of karma, but on a rational Panjābī basis, as:

Duniā tõ mar jāvaņā vatt nā āvaņā Jo kich kīttā burā bhalā te kīttā apanā pāvanā.¹

From the world one parts as dead not to return again; whatever actions wrought (be) right or wrong, according to them he shall obtain.

Husain insists on good karmas so much that several of his poems are composed to express that belief. For example:

Tārī sāī rabbā ve maī augaņ hārī sabh saiyā gunvantiā, tārī sāī rabbā ve maī augaņ hārī bheji sī jis bāt nū piārī rī soī maī bāt bisārī ral mil saiyā dāj raṅgayā piārī rī maī rahī kūārī maī sāī te parbat ḍar de, piārī rī maī kaun vicārī kahe husain sahelio nī amalā bājh khuārī.²

Save, O master God, me full of faults; all friends possess qualities (good karmas), save me, full of faults. The object for which (I) was sent, O dear that alone I ignored; gathering together (for spinning) my friends, O dear, have had their trousseaux dyed (for marriage); I am left unmarried (for not possessing a dowry). Of my master (God) the mountains are

¹ From a kanvālī of the Lahore shrine. It is also given in Hans Cog,
p. 115.
2 Paŭjāb Univ. MS., p. 374, kūfī 1.

afraid, poor creature, what am I? Husain says, O friends, without qualities there is but disaster.

Husain believed in samsāra. This belief he appears to have borrowed from the Sikhs, a rational Bhāgvat order founded at the end of the fifteenth century by Nānak Dev. The founder of this sect had endeavoured to bring samsāra to the state of a science and, like the Ājīvikas, professed that the wheel of samsāra contained eighty-four thousand species of life, each of which in its turn possessed millions and millions of others. But Ḥusain fails to have a clear grasp when he enters the details. His idea is vague, as:

Vatt nahī āvaņā bholiai māai eh varī veļā eh vārī dā is caupaţ de caurāsī khānne jug vichare mil cotā khāde kī jāṇā kī pausī dā.²

(Soul) has not to come again (as human being), O innocent mother, this turn of time (human birth) is only for this turn (life)³; this chess board (samsāra) comprises eighty-four squares (species); once separated after sufferings (of 84 species) is union (in God); what do I know that which (soul) obtains (after death in present life)?

Below is an exquisite example in pathetic, soul-stirring words of the sufferings of Shāh Ḥusain's soul separated from the Universal Soul:

Dard vichore dā hāl nī maī kehnữ akkhã sūlã mār divāṇī kīttī birahữ piā khiāl, nī maī kehnữ ākkhã jaṅgal jaṅgal phirã ḍhữḍēdī aje nā āyā mahīvāl,

nī maī kehnű ākkhā

Dhukhan dhūč shāhā vāle jāpholā tā lāl,

nī maī kehnű ākkhā

kahe husain faqīr rabbānā, vekh nimāniā dā hāl,

nī maī kehnữ ākkhã.4

¹ Les Sibhs, p. 34.

² Hans Cog, p. 112.

³ According to the Hindu thought a soul can come back into the same life if his karmas allow that. A man can be born again as man, or go higher or lower in the scale as his actions permit. Husain does not seem to believe in this.

4 This kāfī is found in the Panjāb University MS. No. 374 (kāfī 9) but is slightly different from what the kavvālīs sing. We give it according

o the kuvvālīs.

The story of the pain of separation, O to whom shall I narrate, these panes have made me mad, this separation is in my thought; from jangal to jangal I roam searching, yet my Mahīvāl has not come. The smouldering fire has black flame, whenever I stir (it), I see the Lāl ; says Shāh Ḥusain, God's faqīr, behold the lot of the humble ones.

Husain explained the reason of his ecstatic dancing which was against the precepts of the established Mussulman beliefs and perhaps against the injunctions of the $Qur'\bar{a}n$ also:

Shak giā beshakī hoī tā maī augan naccī hā je shāhu nāl maī jhumar pāvā sadā suhāgan saccī hā jhuthe dā mūh kālā hoyā āshak dī gall saccī hai shak giā beshakī hoī tā maī augan naccī hā.³

The doubt ⁴ has vanished and doubtlessness is established, therefore I, devoid of qualities, dance. If I play (thus) with the Beloved 1 am ever a happy woman. ⁵ The liar's face (he who accused) has been blackened and the lover's statement has been proved true; because the doubt has vanished and doubtlessness is established, therefore I, devoid of qualities, dance.

Here is a $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}$ in which Shāh Ḥusain describes, in a short but forceful manner, the sarcasm of the public about his unique ways, and expresses his determination to continue his search for the divine Beloved:

Rabbā mere augan citt nā dharī augan hārī ko gun nāī andarō fazaļ karī duniā vāļiā nū duniā dā mānā naṅgā nū naṅg loī nā asī naṅg nā duniā vāļe sānū hass dī janī kanī kaha Hus in fakīr sāī dā saḍi ḍāḍhe nāl banī.6

- O God do not mind my faults; full of faults (I) without quality;—from within show compassion (enlightenment).
- ¹ The story of Solmī Mahīvāl, generally known to the public through the Qissā Solmī Mahīvāl by Fazal Shāh and other poets. The tragedy is said to have taken place in the time of Shāh Jahān, but from the above kājī scoms to have been much older and is, perhaps, of ancient origin.

² Lil here has two meanings, 'red consuming fire hidden under black smoke' and 'the Beloved hidden from us by māyā or our ignorance'.

- 3 From hanvalus. Hans Cog contains it too.
- * About God.

Suhāqin or suhāgan is a woman who has her husband living, hence happy.
 Kāfīā Shāh Husain, No. 1.

To the worldly the pride of the world, to the recluse 1 renun. ciation is a cover.2 Neither a recluse I nor worldly (therefore) whosoever 3 laughs at me; says Shah Husain, God's fagir, my friendship is made with the Terrible One (God).

It appears that Husain never attained the stage of Union. He ever longed to meet God and merge himself in Him. The sentiment that his Beloved was separated from him by his own illusion or ignorance so much overpowered his soul that he sang of his pains of separation in a wonderfully touching manner. This pathos has a very lasting effect on the mind of the reader. No other Sūfī can beat Husain in this respect. Here we give one such poem:

> Sajjan bin rātā hojā vaddiā mās jhare jhar piñjar hoyā kankan geīā haddia ishk chapāyā chappdā nāhī birhō tanāvā gaddiā rājhā jogī maī jogiānī, maī ke karchaddiā kahe shah husain fakir sai da tere daman laggeia.4

Without the friend the nights have become longer, my flesh has fallen, my body has become a skeleton and (then) my bones rattle against each other; love can never be kept hidden, when separation has pitched its camp; Rājhā is a Yogi and I his Yogin, what has he done unto me? Says Shah Husain, God's fagir, I have held Your skirt.

The following is a true example of Shah Husain's love for intoxicating things. He prays to God to grant him these along with wisdom and contemplation. It clearly shows that he was a pleasure-loving Sūfī:

> Jetī jetī duniž rām jī tere kolaŭ maṅgdī kundā dei sotā dei kotthi dei bhang di săfī dei mirca dei be mintī dei rang dī posat dei bātī dei cātī dei khand dī giān dei dhiān dei mahima sādhu sang dī shāh husain fakīr sãī dā ehī duāī malang dī.5

1 Nangā are opposite of the worldly, therefore, recluses.

5 ibid , kāfī 42.

² Lot here means 'cover' and not a blanket. It signifies that their renunciation stands guarantee for them and so nobody questions them or makes fun of them.

³ Janī kanī is a Pañjābī expression, very difficult to render in English. It means, even a person of ordinary importance, to say nothing of others.

4 Panjāb University MS. No. 374, kāfi 5 and kāfiā 2.

All the world (people), O Rāma, begs from you. Give the kundā and soļā and a chamber (full) of bhung ; give the cloth and black pepper and measureless colour, give poppy and the cup and a cātī of sugar; give wisdom and contemplation and the honour of sādhus company (says) Shāh Ḥusain, the faqīr of God, this is the request of a faqīr.

Such was Ḥusain, the unusual Ṣūfī, who lived in the hopes of meeting his departed Beloved, but who utilized the period of waiting in drinking wine and *bhang*.

Sources of Information

Pañjāb University MS. No. 374, Folios 2–14, 743. This MS. in Gurmukkhi characters contains about forty-five $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}s$ of Husain. They are not correctly given. The compiler has mixed most of them. Some, however, are correct.

Kāfīā Shāh Husain, a small brochure containing 28

kāfīs, published at Lahore.9

The $k\bar{a}f\bar{i}s$ collected from $kavv\bar{a}l\bar{i}s$, elders and $mir\bar{a}s\bar{i}s$ at Lahore.

On the life of Husain the following books exist:

Bahāriā, by Bahār Khān. We have not succeeded in tracing the book.

Huqīqat-ul-Fuqarā contains an account of Shāh Husain. It is out of print.

Taḥqāqāt-i-Cishtī by Nūr Aḥmad Cishtī. This Urdū book speaks of Husain at length. 10

Tazkirā-Āwliyā-i-Hind 11 by Mirza Muḥammad. of Delhi. 3 volumes. The third volume deals with . Husain and Mādho.

 1 $R\bar{a}m$ $j\bar{\imath}$ here does not mean Rama, the hero of the epic but God, the omnipresent.

2 Kundā is a stone vessel in which bhang is rubbed.

 3 $Sot\bar{a}$ is a long piece of wood about two inches in diameter with which bhang is pressed and rubbed.

1 Cannabis Indica.

⁵ A thin cloth for the liquid bhang to filter through.

- ⁶ Some colour, generally saffron, to give a pleasing colour to the preparation.
 - 7 Poppy seeds which are added to the preparation.
 - 8 Cāit is a big earthen vessel used for storing things.
 9 Sant Singh & Sons, Lohan Gate, Lahore.

10 Koh-1-Noor Press, Lahore.

¹¹ Muir Press, Delhi, 1928.

6

Hasanāt-ul-'ārifīn by Maulvī Muḥammad 'Umar Khān, an Urdū rendering of the Persian work Hasanāt-ul-'ārifīn of Prince Dārā Shikoh, gives an account of Shah Husain.

History of Lahore by Syed Muhammad Latif in

English. Deals with Husain also.

Hans Cog by Buddh Singh contains some secondhand information about Husain.

Yād-raftagān,² another biography of saints, contains a few pages on Husain's life.

1 Kapur Art Printing Works, Lahoie.

² Islamia Steam Press, Lahore.

CHAPTER III

SULTAN BAHU (A.D. 1631-91)

In Sultan Bahû we have a poet who is universally admitted to have been among the greatest mystics of India accounts are silent with regard to the date of his birth, but they agree about the time of his death. He died on Friday night at dawn in the first jumādī alsānī month in the vear A.H. 11021 (A.D. 1691). He was sixty-three lunar years of age at the time of his death.2 From this we conclude that his birth took place in the year A.D. 1630 at Āvān, Shorkot in Jhang district. Being born at Āvān he is also known as Avān.3

According to Manāgab-i-Sultānī, his ancestors migrated to India from Arabia after the death of Hasan and Husain.4 Having fought and defeated the Hindus of Pind Dadan Khan, Ahmadabad, and the districts around them, they forced them and their chiefs to embrace Islām.5 Whatever his ancestors may have been, the father of Bāhū was a resident of Jhang district. He is said to have been a person of quiet disposition and so was his wife, the mother of Bāhū.6 Legends relating to his childhood are numerous. and of a varied nature. One of them is so interesting that we cannot help relating it here. It runs thus: Bāhū was a boy, he was such a devout Mussulman that a sort of radiance spread round his face, and whenever a Hindu witnessed it, he was so impressed by it, that forgetting all, he renounced his own religion and became a Mussulman. This miracle wrought exclusively by his radiance frightened

Manūqab-i-Sultānī, p. 125.
 sons of 'Alī and grandsons of the Prophet
 Manūqab-r-Sultānī, p. 7.
 She was known as Bibī Rūstī Quds Sarā, cf. ıbid., p. 5.

the Hindus, who sent a delegation to wait upon his father and request him to keep his son Bāhū indoors, except at certain hours. This request was complied with, and the young boy thereafter had to remain indoors.1

His family was held in great regard by the Emperor Shāh Jahān who conferred on his father, Sultān Bāzīd. Kahar Jānan in jāgīr.2

Bāhū received his education at home, and his mother was mostly responsible for it. It is said that after he had married and had begotten children he wanted his mother to become his murshid or pir. But she declined, stating that women in Islam were not permitted to be spiritual teachers and that he had better go and find a male teacher.8 Thereupon he left his wives and family and went to Hazrat Habīb-ullāh Qādirī 4 at Baghdād 5 on the banks of the river Rāvī.

After a short period of discipleship Sultan Bahū defeated his master in his power of karāmāt or miracles.6 Thereupon Habīb-ullāh frankly informed him of his inability to teach any further and directed him to go to his master Hazrat Pīr Saivid Abdul Rahmān of Delhi. This Abdul Rahmān, as Habīb-ullāh describes him, 'was apparently a mansabdar of the Emperor but possessed great spiritual knowledge '. Sultan Bahū then went to Delhi and learnt from Abdul Rahmān 8 what he desired.

¹ Manāgab-i-Sultānī, p. 40.

² ibid., p. 126. 3 Manāgab-i-Sultānī, p. 34.

⁴ ibid., p. 35. Who this Habīb-ullāh was we do not know. There were so many of this name at the time. Beale in his Oriental Biographical Dictionary mentions two, one a celebrated poet of Agra, and another 'the author of an Arabic work called Bahr-ul-Mantiq or the Sea of Logic'.

⁵ This Baghdad is different from the famous city of Iraq. Most probably it was a village on the banks of the Rävī.

⁶ Manāgab-i-Sultānī, pp. 36-7.

⁷ ibid., p. 37.
8 ibid., p. 37. This Abdul Rahman could not be any other than the son of Abdul 'Azīz Nagshbandī. Sulaimān Shikoh, son of Dārā Shik married his daughter in A.H. 1062 (A.D. 1651). See Boale, Oriental Biographical Dictionary, p. 13.

Bāhū, says Sultān Bakhsh Qādirī, was held in great esteem by Emperor Aurangzeb, who paid him all possible attention, but for some unknown reason the saint never seems to have cared for the Emperor. Bahū had four married wives and seventeen mistresses. Of the former. three were Muslim and the fourth a Hindu. He had eight sons from his wives.2 This sort of life, though sanctioned by the Muslim law, did not belit a saint and a teacher. But it is not for us to judge his private life, and so we proceed.

On his death, Sultān Bāhū was buried at Kahar Jānan. In A.H. 1180 (A.D. 1767) Jhandā Singh and Gandā Singh 3 raided the district. The relatives and murids, though they were very anxious to protect the tomb, ran away in fear. One murid of the saint nevertheless refused to prove faithless to his ashes. The Sikh chiefs, however, did not despoil the tomb and left the faithful disciple unmolested.4 What the Bhangī chiefs spared, nature, however, did not.⁵ Some time after, the Chenab having changed its course, its waters covered the graveyard, and many tombs were swept away. The murids and khalifas thereupon began to weep and wail, but a voice comforted them by telling them that next morning an unknown person would come and bring from under the water the coffin containing the dead body of Sultan Bahu. As stated by the voice, a strange person brought the coffin out of the river 6 and having ordered its burial under a pipal tree, in a deserted building,

¹ Tawārīkh Sultān Bāhū, pp. 8-9. We see no other reason for Bāhū's ¹ indifference towards Aurangzeb except that either he doubted his attentions or that he disapproved of his treatment of the Ṣūfī saints and friends of the late prince Dara Shikoh whom the Sufis, and especially the Qadiris, loved and counted as one of themselves.

² Manāgab-i-Sultānī, pp. 41-2.

<sup>These Sikh chiefs made this raid in 1766, and it surely must have lasted for at least a year. See Griffith's Pañjāb Chiefs, Vol. I, p. 478.
Manāqab-i-Sultānī, p. 130.
It must be stated to the credit of the Sikh Sardārs that they never</sup>

hurt the religious feelings of the Mussulmans by despoiling or by pulling down their sacred buildings and other places of worship.

⁶ Manāgab-i-Sultānī, p. 130.

disappeared.¹ The coffin accordingly was taken to the said building, put under the tree, and a brick platform raised on it. The grave was not dug, as was the usual custom.² This event occurred ten years after the Sikh raid on the district, i.e. in A.H. 1190 (A.D. 1775).³

His Works

Bāhū, says the author of Tawārīkh Sultān Bāhū. wrote in all a hundred and forty books in Persian and Arabic.4 Nothing is recorded about his works in Pañiābī except that he wrote poetry in Panjābī also.5 What happened to this latter poetry is not known. Most probably, as Pañjābī was considered vulgar and unscholarly. his works in this language were ignored and ultimately lost.6 In spite of all this indifference, some of Bāhū's Panjābī verse was preserved by the gaddī-nishīns, though not because they loved it. The followers and admirers of Sultan Bahū are mostly villagers and uneducated people who know no language except their own mother-tongue, Pañiābī. So the descendants, to maintain their own prestige and influence over these credulous people, have preserved some of Bāhū's verse.7 It is sung by the kavvālīs on the 'urs days.

Bāhū, relates the author of $Man\bar{a}qab$ -i- $Sult\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, wrote in his 'Ain-ul-Fuqar that he thanked his mother for having given him the name Bāhū, which by the alteration of one $nukt\bar{a}$ or point becomes $y\bar{a}h\bar{u}$.8

- $^{\rm 1}$ This unknown person, according to tradition, was Sultān Bāhū himself.
- ² With due respect to the sentiment of the faithful, we rather doubt if the present tomb contains the ashes of the saint.

3 Manāgab-1-Sultānī, p. 131.

¹ 1bid, p. 8.

⁵ ibid., p. 239.

⁶ This opinion is confirmed by the place allotted and the indifference shown to valuable Panjābī manuscripts in the private MS. collections in the Panjāb.

7 A3 mentioned below, some of it has been published by Miā Fazal Din of Lahore.

9 p 8. $Y\bar{a}h\bar{u}$, it is aid in the Panjāb, is as important and efficacious aname of God as Om in Sanckrit.

y published sīharfī of Bāhū is very lengthy. of the alphabet has one, two, or four short consisting of eight tukks. But some letters han twenty such poems. The most striking Bāhū's poetry is that every second tukk ends s regarded as a name of Allāh, and it is cony meritorious to repeat it as often as possible. in hū are an innovation in Paūjābī poetry. a great help in establishing the authenticity ũjābī verse.

s judged from his poetry, belonged to the shool of the Sūfīs, but for some reason or other ilosophy under the veil of orthodoxy. It may asure his safety 1 he disguised his philosophic ien there was another reason, namely his saintdid not permit him that liberty and happiness would enjoy. He had become a pir, not in a preceptor but as a religious head and object d worship. This demanded a certain amount d prudence on his part. So he had to present ic ideas slightly tinged with orthodox thought, s personal convictions. Yet it is worth stating thū's ideas, though philosophic, were different f Bullhe Shāh, his younger contemporary. He m to have believed in karma and reincarnahe did, they had not become convictions with was a great lack of balance and equilibrium neistic philosophy, and it is this lack which his indulgence in sexual pleasures and princely private life was a natural consequence of his insteadiness.

verse is composed in simple and unpretentious as a well-marked character of its own and ned above, Aurangzeb, the emperor, watched his movely. For this very reason, as we have said below, Ināyat Qādirī saint, turned away his beloved disciple Bullhe Shāh•

rests entirely on the resources of the poet's thought and knowledge of the language. There is an absolute lack of artificiality. Another thing which is creditable about him. is that his verse is pious and bereft of all human love and its ideals.

Bāhū's language is Panjābī, as it is spoken in Jhang and the districts around it. It has sweetness and simplicity but is not rustic or vulgar.

The poetry of Bāhū is not much known, and if it has attained popularity anywhere it is in the circle of his adherents, though it deservedly demands a better consideration from the general public of the Panjab.

The following poems are extracted from Bāhū's sīharfī. This is Bāhū's ideal of a faqīr:

> Jīm jiūdiā mar rahnā hove, tā ves fakīrā karive hū je koi sutte guddar kūrā vāng arūrhī sahiye hū je koi kadde gālā mehnā us nữ jī jī kahiye hū gilā-ulāhmbhā bhañdī khavārī yārde pārō sahiye hū.1

Jim: if dead while living we want to remain, then the robe of facirs we should wear, O He; if any one throws at us worn-out rags and rubbish,2 like a dunghill we should bear them, O He; he who abuses and taunts, to him, we should say sir, sir, O He; complaint and taunts, scandal and troubles we should bear for the Beloved's sake, O He.

In the following he relates the condition of him who has attained Union:

Jīm jinhā shau alif thi pāyā, oh fer kur'ān na parh de hū oh māran dam muhabbat vālā, dūr hoyo ne parde hū Dozakh bihisht Gulām tinhāde, ca kitto ne barde hū maī kurbān tinhā to bāhū, jehre vāhdat de vice varde hū.3

Jīm: those who have found the Lord alif,4 they again do not read the Qur'an, O He; they respire the breath of love and their veils 5 have gone afar, O He; hell and heaven their slaves become, their faults they have forsaken, O He; I am a sacrifice for those, Bāhū, who in the unity enter, O He.

Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 9. 2 Guddar is worn-out cloth. Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 9.
 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 9.
 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 9.
 Meaning, their ignorance has vanished and they have seen the

ctruth.

Lahū speaks of his beloved :

De cain cannū tū kar roshanāi to jikkar karēdo tāre hū i ao jaho cann kai svi carlīde, sānū sajjanā bājh hanerā hū ji the cam hai sāḍā carhdā, kadar nahī kujh terī hū ji do kāran asā janam gavāyā bāhū yār milsī ikk verī hū.

We ise moon, spread your light and the stars will talk of it.²
) He; many hundred moons like you might rise, without the Friend for mais dark, O He; where that moon of mine is a, there no regard for you is felt, O He; for whom, 3 hū, I have lost my life, once that Friend will meet me, O He

Il ro is Ba in a definition of real lovers (seekers):

Nun nā oh hindu nā oh moman nā sijdā den masītī hū 1 m dam de vice vekhaņ maulā, jinhā jān kazā nā kīttī nu āc dāne te hane divāne jinhā zāt sahī vanjh kīttī hū m ī kurbān tinhā in bāhū jinhā ishk bāzī cuṇ līttī hū.

Vān neither Hindus are they, nor are they Muslims nor in the mosques they in obcisance bow, O He; in each and every breath they behold God, who have not distorted their lines, O He; they came wise, and became mad, who traded in the real substance, O He; I am a sacrifice for them, Bāhū, who have selected their profession, love, O He.

The following expresses the philosophic concept of Suff thought. Here he forgets his orthodoxy:

He hū dā jāmā paih ghar āyā, ism kamāvanzātī hū nā otthe kufar islām dī manzil nā otthe maut hayātī hū shāh rag thǐ nazdīk laṅghesī pa andūre jhātī hū oh asā vice asī uhuā vice dūr huī kurbātī hū.⁵

He: dressed in God I come home, to earn the Name is my profession, O He; neither are there stages of paganism and Islām, nor is there death and life, O He; He will pass nearer than the jugular vein; do throw a glance inside you, O He: He is in us and we in Him, falsity has gone away, O He.

1 Majmū a Sultān Bāhū, p. 10.

8 Mujmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 22.

² Will discuss of its light being so strong as compared to their own light.

⁴ In each creature or in the breath of each creature that breathes.

⁵ Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 24.

⁶ Has disappeared or has left the soul.

Again:

Nün nāhī jogī nāhī jattgam nā maī cilā kamāyā hū nū maī bhajj masītī variyā nā tasbā kharkāyā hū jo dam gāfil so dam kāfir sānū murshid eh pharmāyā hū murshid sānū sohņī kīttī bāhū ikko pal vice cā bakhshāyā hū.

Nūn: neither a yogī nor a jaṭṭgam,² nor have I observed the forty days' fast, O He; neither have I rushed into a mosque nor with rosary³ noise have I made, O He; 'That breath when one is forgetful, that breath is false' to me (this) the teacher has ordained, O He; teacher has treated me hand-somely,¹ Bāhū, in one moment he procured me grace, O He.

Mīm mazhabā vāle darvāze ucce, rāh rabbānī morī hū paṇḍtā te mulvāniā kolō chap chap laṅge de corī hū aḍḍīā māran karn bakhere dardmandā dīa ghorī hū bāhū cal utthāī vasiai jittho dāvā nā kisse horī hū.⁵

Mīm: religion's ⁶ gates are high and the path of God is like a hole, ⁷ O He; from the pandits and the maulis, it passes hidden and concealed, ⁸ O He; they kick with their heels and create trouble (but this) for the sufferers is a ghor, ⁹ O He; Bāhū, let us go there and live where no one else's claims exist, ¹⁰ O He.

The following may account for Bāhū's indifference towards the Emperor. How could a man with such ideas appear in the king's presence without running a great risk of being put to death?

Ain āshik hove te ishk kamāve dil rakkhe vāṅg pahaṛā hū lakh lakh badiā hazar ulāhme, kar jāne bāg bahārā hū mansūr jahe cukk sūlī ditte vākif kul asrārā hū sijjdiyā sār dil nā cāhe bāhū tore kāfir kahn hazārā hū.¹¹

1 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 23.

² Sādhus and dervishes with long, braided hair.

By fervently counting the beads.

Meaning, has done me a great favour by teaching me the secret, i.e. 'the breath when one is forgetful of God, that breath is false'.

⁵ Majmū a Sultān Bāhū, p. 22.

6 Religion here stands for any established church.

7 Hole signifies humility.

⁸ It passes low and concealed, i.e. the mystic lover being afraid of the clergy keeps himself hidden from them and is humble.

J They try to crush the mystics underfoot and create trouble for them, but to the lover these kicks and troubles appear like that auspicious song which is sung at marriage celebrations indicating the approaching union.

10 Where no one professes anything, i.e. where there are seekers but no professors of paths.

11 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 16.

Ain: if one is a lover and professe, love it should see his heart like a mountain, O Ho: many millions of had turns and thousands of taunts he should feel as pleasures of gathen, O He; one like Mansur was hanged on the cross, who was acquainted with all the secrets. O He, to bo v head in obesance heart wants not, Bāhū, though thousands might proclaim me heathen. O He.

Bāhū expresses his sentiments for his m in l d in the following:

Mīm murshid makkā tālib hājī kābā ishk banāyā n viec hazūr sadā har veļe k mai hajj savāyā hū hikk dam maīthö judā jo hove dil mil me te āyā hā murshid ain hayātī bāhū mere lū lū viec samāyā ha.

Mim: the murshid is Makkā, seeker the pilgrim, and love is the Ka'aba, O He; in his presence ever and at all times ilet us do that better hajj, O He; if for one moment he parts from me, the heart craves to meet, O He; Bāhū, the murshid is the life, he is present in my every pore, O He.

Bāhū, like the orthodox Qādirīs, composed a few poems in praise of Abdul-Qādir Jīlānī, the founder of the Qādirīyā sect. Here is one of this kind:

Sīn sun faryād pīrā diyā pīrā, mai ākkh suṇava kehnu hu tere jehā maīnū hor nā koī, mai jehe lakh tainū hū phol nā kāgaz badiā vāle dar to dhak nā maīnū hū maī vicc aiḍ gunāh nā honde bāhū tū bakhshīdō kāhnū hū.

Sin: listen to (my) complaint O Pir of the pirs, to whom else should I tell it? O He: like you there is no one else for me, but like me you have millions, O He; do not open the papers of bad deeds, do not push me away from the door, O He; if I were not filled with such great sins then, says Bāhū, why would you have pardoned me?

- $^{\rm 1}$ This obeisance is made during the five daily prayers of the Muhammadans.
 - ² Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 21.
- ³ Waiting upon him at each minute of the day and night is like pilgrimage to the Ka'aba.
 - 4 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 14.
 5 A name of Abdul Qādir Jīlānī.
 - 6 The papers containing the account of my bad deeds.

This is the condition of a real lover:

Ain ishk di bhāh haddā dā bālan āshak baih sakēde hij g' at ke jān jigar vicc ārā, vekkh kabāb talēde hū gardan phiran har vele khūn jigar da pide hū kççe hazara ashak bahû par ishk nasib kide hū.1

Ain: love is fire, bones 2 the fuel and sitting in front the lovers warm themselves,3 O He; putting the saw in the heart behold like the kabāb they are being fried, O He; the mad ones (lov rs) ever roam about drinking their (own) heart's blood, O IIe; thousands have become lovers, Bāhū, but in whose destiny is love? 'O He.

What the Beloved expects of the lover is a white (pure) he it and not a white (beautiful) face. This idea is very finely expressed in the lines given below:

" āl dil kāle kolõ mữh kāļā caṅgā, je koi us nữjāne hữ mỹn kālā dil acchā hove tā dil yār pachāņe hū eh dil yār de picche hove, matā yār vī kade sanjhāņe hū bāhū sai ālam chor masītā natthe, jab lage ne dil tīkāne hū.5

 $D\bar{a}l$: than a black heart a black face is better, each one is aware of that, O He; if face is black and heart is white then the Beloved recognizes that, O He; such heart should ever follow the beloved, might be that He recognizes him, O He; Bāhū, hundreds of learned men have left the mosques and run (to their pirs) when their heart has attrined its mark. O He.

The pure and the elect are described in this couplet:

Jīm jo pākī bin pāk mābī de, so pākī jān palītī hū hikk butt-khānne jā vāsal hoai ijk khālī rahe masītī hū.9

¹ Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 16.

- The different parts of the lover's body burn in the fire of love, hence they are fuel.

³ The warmth or suffering is experienced by the lovers, i.e. their souls. 4 Meaning, those who attain love (i.e. the Beloved's love) are rare though thousands try to have it.

5 Majmūʻa Sultān Bāhū, p. 11.
6 Should constantly seek the Beloved.

7 So that he, recognizing the search, will accept the lover.
5 When the lovers' hearts have become pure and follow the Beloved (i.e. when they see Him in all and love Him in all) then they have attained light, and so they leave the church.

9 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 8.

Jim. those who are pure, without the purity of the Beloved, consider their purity to be impurity, O He; some in the idolhouse have reached Union, others have failed in mosques, O He.²

Bāhū disapproves of faqīrī without knowledge. Lessays:

Ain ilam bājhe koī fukar kamāve kāfir mere dīvānā nū sai variā dī kare ibādat rāh allāh kannu begānā hū gafalat kannu nā khulsan purde dil zāhil laut ichānnā nū maī kurbān tinhā de bāhū jinhā mīliyā yar yagānā hū.

Ain: he who without knowledge professes renunciation let that false one (kāfir) die insane, O He; he might worship for a hundred years, yet to God's path will he be a stranger, O He; because of carelessness his curtains of ignorance will not be removed and his foolish heart will be an idol-house, O He; I am a sacrifice, Bāhū, for them who have met the Beloved Unique, O He.

Now we shall quote a few examples expressing Bāhū's orthodox ideas. The following is in praise of the lave of Hasan, Husain, and their father, 'Alī:

Ain āshak soī hakīkī jehrā katal māshūk de manne hū ishk nā chore mūh nā more tore sai talvarā khanne hū jitt val dekkhe rāz māhī dā lagā udāhī vañjhe hū saceā ishk hasnain 4 Alī dā bāhū sar deve rāz nā bhanne hū.

Ain: he is a real lover who considers himself a victim, of the Beloved, O He; who does not renounce love and turns not away his face, even if a hundred ewords cut bim, O He. ' in whatever direction he sees the rule of his Beloved, there we continues to walk, O He; Bāhū, the true love is of Husan, Husain and 'Alī who gave their heads but did not break the rule, O He.

¹ Purity without God is uncleanliness. It is not by professing the so-called pure religions that one attains salvation, but by loving God.

" Some ', says Bāhū, 'attamed Union remaining in the idol-house or in a religion that prescribes idolatry and is therefore considered to be impure by Islām, while many mosque-going people believed to be pure could not attain it, because they were attached to the letter and not to the Spirit.

' Majmű'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 16.

1 Hassain stands for both Hasan and Husain.

Majmū a Sultān Bāhū, p. 13.

The following describes the horrors of the grave and suggests that they could be avoided if the corpse bowed to the Divine Will:

Jim jiŭde ki jāran sār moyā dī so jāņe jo mardā hū nabarā de vice ann nā pānī utthe khare turēdā ghardā hū ikk vichorā mā pvo bhāīyā dūjā azāb kabardā hū inān salāmat tis dā bāhū jehņā rabb agge sir dhardā hū.¹

Jim: what do the living know of the condition of the dead, he alone knows who dies, O He; in graves there is n ither food nor water and spending is of one's own house, O He²; first there is the separation of parents and brothers,³ second is the trouble of the grave, O He; Bāhū, his faith alone there rests safe, who surrenders his head before God, O He.

This extract illustrates well his regard for the kalmā :

He hor dāvā nā dil dī kārī, kalmā dil dī kārī hū kalmā dūr jaṅgāl karčdā kalmē mail uttārī hū kalmā hīre lāl jawāhar, kalme hatt pasārī hū itthe utthe dovi jahāni bāhū kalmā daulat sārī hū.⁵

He: other profession for heart is not efficient, the kalmā of the heart is efficient, O He; the kalmā takes the rust away and the kalmā scrapes off the dirt, O He; the kalmā is diamond, ruby and precious stones, the kalmā has extended its shop, O He; Bāhū, here and there in both the worlds the kalmā is all the wealth, O He.

Islam is the only true path, says our poet:

- *.eh dil hijar fīrākõ saṛdā eh dam mare nā jivē hū saccā rāh Muḥammad vālā bāhū jaĭ vice rabb labhīve hū.b
- This heart is burning with separation, it neither dies nor lives, O He; the true path is the path of Muḥammad, along which God is found, O He.
 - ¹ Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 9.
 - "That is, the time is spent according to one's own actions, good or bad.
 - 3 Brother here means relatives and friends.
 - 4 The kalmā is the profession of the Muhammadan faith.
 - 5 Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 24.
 - 6 . Extending its shop 'means that the $kalm\bar{a}$ is spreading or that Islām is progressing.
 - ⁷ That is, the kalmā is the greatest wealth as its repetition wins the pleasures of the world and heaven.
 - ¿ Majmū'a Sultān Bāhū, p. 4.

Sources of Information

Manāgav-i-Sultānī 1 (in Urdū). This is a translation of the Persian work of the same name. The author of his work was Sultan Hamid, a relative and descendant of the poet Sultan Bahu. The work, though it gives much real information, contains legends of a fabulous character.

Tārīkh Makhzan-i-Pañjāb² by Ghulām Sarvar, in Urdū, also contains some important information about the saint.

Tawārīkh Sultān Bāhū in Persian. This MS, pamphlet on the life of Sultan Bahu was written by Sultan Bakhsh Qādirī in 1920 and is the property of the Pañjāb Public Library, Oriental Section.

Many other biographies of saints contain brief descriptions of the life of Bāhū, but they are mere extracts from the above-mentioned books.

Of the Panjābī works of Bāhū only one book has been published. This is a collection of his verses, the authenticity of which has been well established. The title is Majmū'a Abyāt Sultān Bāhū Pañjābī.3 It is in Urdū characters and contains a very lengthy siharfi.

Another source of information, both on the life-history and the poetry of Bähū, are the kavvālīs. Though we have not depended on this source for the account of Baha, yet we cannot help stating that if someone collected material from this source it would be of great value.

¹ Husain Steam Press, Lahore.

Naval Kishore Press, Lucknow, 1877.
 Compiled by Miã Fazal Din of Lahore in 1915. Can be had from ,
 Allāh vāle kī Kaumī Dukān, Kashmiri Bazar, Lahore, or Inkilab Press, Lahore.

CHAPTER IV

BULLHE SHAH

(A.D. 1680-1758)

Bullhe Shāh is universally admitted to have been the greatest of the Pañjābī mystics. No Pañjābī mystic poet enjoys a wider celebrity and a greater reputation. His $k\bar{a}f\bar{i}$, have gained unique popularity. In truth he is one of the greatest Ṣūfīs of the world and his thought equals that of Jalāl-ud-dīn Rūmī and Shamsi Tabrīz of Persia. As a poet Bullhe Shāh is different from the other Ṣūfī poets of the Pañjāb, and represents that strong and living pious nature of Pañjābī character which is more reasonable than emotional or passionate. As he was an outcome of the traditional mystic thought we can trace some amount of mystic phraseology and sentiment in his poetry but, in the main, intellectual Vedantic thought is its chief characteristic.

He was born in a Saiyid family residing at the village Paṇdokī of Kasur in the Lahore district, in the year A.D. 1680.² This was during the twenty-first year of Emperor Aurangzeb's reign.⁵ According to C. F. Usborne ⁶ he died in A.H. 1171 or A.D. 1785 (i.e. in the short reign of 'Ālamgīr the 'Second) at the ripe old age of 78. The kavvālīs say that he was brought up and educated on strictly Muhammadan lines, as was the wont of Saiyid families in those days. C. F. Usborne says that his father was a man of dervishic ideas.⁵ It is difficult to decide between

¹ The Panjābī, though he has his superstitions and dogmas, is ever ready to shake them off, if he is convinced of their futility. This desire often puts him to inconvenience but he does not mind it. It is on account of this phase of the Panjābī character that reforming sects have always gained ground in the Panjāb.

² See C. F. Usborne, Sat Bullhe Shah, p. 5, and Bullhe Shah, p. 4.

³ Aurangzeb ascended the Mughal throne in May, 1659.

⁴ Bullhe Shāh, p. 4.

⁵ See p. 4 of his pamphlet.

these two contradictory statements. But taking into consideration the political situation of the times and the various legends that have gathered round the saint's life, we can safely say that the kavvālīs are right. The Saiyids of Kasur were said to be well known for their bigotry and were much enraged when Bullhe Shāh became a Ṣūfī and a disciple of the Arāī Ināyat Shāh. We conclude therefore that Bullhe Shāh's father could not have been a man of theosophic disposition and what C. F. Usborne meant by dervishic ideas was that he was a religious man.

After completing his education, it is said that Bullhā went to Lahore. Of the two traditions, one says that, as was customary in those days, he came to Lahore in search of a spiritual teacher, while the other relates that he went there on a visit. Each of these two contradictory traditions has a legend to support it. The first relates that while he was busy searching the intellectual circles of Lahore to find out a competent master he heard of Shāh Iuāyat's greatness and decided to make him his murshid. He turned his steps towards the house of the Shāh, and found him engrossed in his work in the garden.\(^1\) Laving introduced himself, Bullhā requested that he might be accepted as a disciple and taught the secret of God. Thereupon Ināyat said:

Bullhiā rabb dā pāņ ai edharō puţţan odharō lān hai.-

- O Bullhā the secret of God is this; on this side He uproots, on the other side He creates.
- 'This', says the tradition, 'so impressed Bullhā that, forgetting his family and its status, he became Ināyat hāh's disciple.'
- ¹ Iniyat Shah was an *arat* or gardener. He remained in his profession even after he had become a famous teacher and saint.

- The kavvālis sing it, but it is found in almost all the printed books mentioned below.

3 Sāt Bullhe Shāh and Bullhe Shāh (Pañjāb University) both give this tradition: see pp. 8 and 13 respectively.

The second tradition says that Shah Inavat was the head gardener of the Shālimār gardens of Lahore. When in Lahore, Bullhe Shāh visited them, and as it was summer he roamed in the mango-groves. Desirous of tasting the fruit he looked round for the guardian but, not finding him there, he decided to help himself. To avoid the sin of stealing, he looked at the ripe fruit and said: 'allāh ahanī'.1 On the utterance of these magic words a mango fell into his hands. He repeated them several times, and thus collected a few mangoes. Tying them up in his scarf 2 he moved on to find a comfortable place where he could eat them. At this time he met the head gardener, who accused him of stealing the fruit from the royal gardens. Considering him to be a man of low origin and desirous of demonstrating to him his occult powers, Bullhā said ironically: 'I have not stolen the mangoes but they have fallen into my hands as you will presently see.' He uttered 'allah ghani' and the fruit came into his hand. But to his great surprise the young Saivid found that Inavat Shah was not at all impressed but was smiling innocently. The great embarrassment of Bullhe Shah inspired pity in the gardener's heart and he said: 'You do not know how to pronounce properly the holy words and so you reduce their power.' So saying, he uttered 'allāh ghanī', and all the fruits in the gardens fell on the lovely lawns. Once again he repeated the same and the fruit went back on to the trees. This defeat inflicted , by the guardian, whom the young Saiyid Bullhe Shah considered ignorant and low, revolutionized his whole thought. Falling at the feet of Inayat Shah he asked to be classed as his disciple, and his request was immediately granted.3

Some kavvālīs relate that the magic word was bismillāh. The author of Bāgh-i-Awliyā-e-Hind agrees with them, see p. 38.
 A long piece of cloth wound round the shoulders by Pañjābī men.
 This tradition is as popular as the other. It was related to us at Lahore by some kavvālīs. The author of Bāgh-i-Awliyā-e-Hind (p. 38) mentions it in a slightly different manner.

ove two traditions, though different in detail, same conclusion, that Bullhā, impressed by the Ināyat, became his disciple. Bullhe Shāh in en speaks of his master Ināyat Shāh and thanks a for having met such a murshid.

Bullhā shauh ve nīc kamīnī shauh ināyat tārī.'

O God the Lord Inayat has saved me, low and

Bullhe Shāh dī suņo hakāit hādī pakriā hog hadāit merā murshid Shāh Ināyat uh langhāai pār."

story of Bullhe Shāh, he has got hold of the $p\bar{r}r$ ave salvation. My teacher, Shāh Ināyat, he will coss.

count of the Panjābī poets it would perhaps ce to speak at great length of Shāh Ināyat who ersian." But the influence exerted by him teachings and writings has linked him with ature. Bullhā, the Rūmī of the Panjāb, came under his influence and, having learnt from pired to write his remarkable poetry. It will, proper to give here a short account of this an.

Inayat and his School

Shai<u>kh</u> Muḥammad Ināyat-ullāh, generally hāh Ināyat Qādirī, was born at Kasur in the

he Shāh, p. 23, kāfī 6. 2 ibid., p. 7. iyat, it is suid, always preached in Pañjābī and used to ñjābī verse of his own composition. But as Pañjābī was language of the vulgar and the uncultured these composipreserved.

indebted to Khān Sāhib Shaikh Sirāj-ud-dīn, retired naster General, the present gaddī-nishīn of Shāh Ināyat, nformation he furnished on the life and work of his ancestor. e we will refer to this information as Sirā. Inform., i.e. formation.

Lahore district, of ara parents. The ara is in the Paniah were gardeners or petty cultivators. They are known to he Hindu converts to Islam and are therefore considered inferior by Muhammadans. Rose, in his Glossary of the Tribes and Castes of the Pañjāb, writes: 'The nucleus of this caste was probably a body of Hindu Saini or Kamboh cultivators who were converted to Islām at an early period 1 Ibbetson and Wilson are also of the same opinion, and their view is supported by traditions of some arai subcast who claim descent from Hindu princes of solar and lunar races 2

The descendants of Shāh Ināyat, however, claim descent from Kulāb, an ancestor of the Prophet Muhammad. The genealogical tree which Shaikh Sirāj-ud-dīn has kindly furnished, however, cannot convince us of Inayat Shah's Arabian descent. Almost all names between the present descendant and Kulāb are Hindu names 4 The arāīs. according to all available information, appear to be Indian Muslims and Shah Inayat was born in one such well-to-do family. The date and year of Inavat's birth are not known. but one of his manuscripts, containing an endorsement in his own handwriting and also his seal, bears the date A.H. 11106 (A.D. 1699). From this we can conclude that he was a contemporary of Aurangzeb and perhaps saw a part of the reign of Shah Jahan. The Wazaif-i-Kalan gives the year of his death as A.H. 1147 (A.D. 1735) during t le time of Emperor Muhammad Shāh 7 He was educated

Vol. II, p. 15. ¹ Vol. II, p. 15. ³ Sira. Inform., pp. 3 and 4. We have no motive to doubt the statement of the Shaikh Sāhib If we do not accept it, it is because all scientific and historical evidence is

The Shaikh showed to us a Persian MS. from which he had copied the genealogical tree. This I'S., from its appearance and paper, seemed to be of very recent origin.

This endorsement was, according to the Panjābī Şūfī custom, the permit issued by Ināyat Shāh to his grown-up son to study the book. It shows that he was already a man of advanced age because only an advanced Sufi had the right to give such permission.

7 The author of Bāghi-Awliyā-e-Hind (p. 36), however, puts it

in A.H. 1141.

after the manner of his time and gained a good knowledge of Persian and Arabic. As he was born with a mystic aisposition he became a disciple of the famous Suffincholar a d saint Muhammad Alī Razā Shattārī.1 After h had in seed his studies he was created a thatifa. Lance on le re gived the likitaful of seven other sub-sects of the Sufi "Jidi.is." Soon after this event he left Kasur and migrated 's Libre The aut or of Bath-i-Awling-Hind say, that the great enmity of the Hakim Husain Khan ompelled him to migrate,' but his discendants essert the it was the order of his teacher that brought him to ladvore. Here, after having quelled the jealou-y of his famous contemporaries, he established a college of his own. To this college came men of education for further studies in philosophy and other spiritual sciences of the time?

The Dortrines of Inayat Shah

The Wadin's of the Paniah were for our for their philoso this studies. It was their influence that had converted princ' Dara Shikoh.' They were very much inclined t mar is Hindu philosophy. Shah Laayat was no except on to this rule. He was a nan of scholarly disposition, and we as several books, as well as commentaries upon the works of his predecessors. In his Dustur-ul-Anal? he d scribe is he different method, employed for the attainment of sal. a Son, by the Hindus of ancient times. These various methods he classes in different groups—the seventh and the la-t group, according to him, being efficacious to procure for the spiritual stage of Parma-Humsa. This

¹ The Shattari is a sub-sect of the Qadiri sect of Sufusm.

p. 36. 2 Sirā. Inform., p. 5 5 ibid.

¹ Sirā. Inform, p. 8
⁵ ibid.
⁶ See British Museum Catalogue Rieu, I, 54, and II, 828; also Journal Asiatique, 1915, p. 268.
7 This MS. is in the possession of the present gaddi-mshin.

These methods are those various yogic practices, used by the yogis of old, to control the senses and to concentrate on the Divine Lord.

knowledge. Inavat believed, was carried by the Grees soldiers of Alexander the Great to Greece, from where it was borrowed by the mystics of Islām.1

Shah Inayat, besides his enunciation of Hindu thought. wrote considerably of Sūfīism and its development. He is said to have written a commentary on the Holy Qur'an. but that is not available. The following are his Persian works, now in the possession of his khalifa descendant. Shaikh Sirāj-ud-dīn:

> Islāh-ul-Amal, a work on Sūfīism and Sūfī practices. Latāif Ghaibiā

Irshād-ul-tālibīn2

Notes on Jawahir Khamsa of Muhammad Ghaus of Gwalior.3

In addition to these, Inavat Shah is said to have written nany other books. But the fire that broke out in the louse of his descendants, during the troubled times that collowed the death of Mahārājā Ranjīt Singh, consumed them along with the vast library left by the saint.4

Such was the man whom Bullhe Shah made his hadi or gurū. This action of Bullhā, however, was highly disoleasing to his family. His relatives tried to induce him to give up Inayat and find another murshid. But Bullha was firm and paid no attention to them or to their wailings. The following will sufficiently demonstrate the indignation of the family:

Bullhe nữ samjhāvan āīyā bhainā te bharjāīyā āl nabī aulād alī dī bullhiā tū kī līkā lāiyā mann lai bullhiā sādā kahnā chadd de pallā rājyā.

1 Dastur-ul-Amal, p. 114.

³ Spiritually, Shāh Ināyat was a descendant of Muhammad Ghaus of Gwalior; Sirā. Inform., p. 3.

² These MSS. have never been studied or spoken of by scholars as yet. They are mostly in Persian but abound in Arabic words.

⁴ How the fire broke out or who set the house on fire is not known. The descendants sometimes say it was the Sikhs, at other times that it was some unknown person. Nobody is sure of the truth of the statement.

To Bullhā sisters and sisters-in-law came to explain (ulviso). Why, O Bullhā, have you blackened the family 1 of the Prophet and the descendants of 'Alī? Listen to our advice, Bullhā, and leave the skirt of the arāī 2

To this reproach Bullha firmly but indifferently replies:

Jehrā sānū saiyad ākkhe dozakh miln sajāīyā jehrā sānū rāī ākkhe bahīshtī pīgā pāīyā je tū lorē bāg bahārā Bullhia Tālib hojā rāīyī

He who calls me a Saiyid, shall receive punishments in Hell, he who calls me an araī shall in heaven have swings; O Bullha, if you want pleasures of the garden become a disciple of the araī.

Bullha seems to have suffered at the hands of his family, as he has once or twice mentioned in his poetry. In the end, being convinced of the sincere love and regard of their child for Ināyat Shāh, the family left him alone. It is said that one of his sisters, who understood her brother, gave him her support and encouraged him in his search for truth.⁵

Having broken with the family, Bullhā came to live with his teacher and soon mastered the secret of his teachings. As the political situation of the times was against the Ṣūfīs and especially against the Ṣūfīs of Ināyat Shāh's type, he forbade Bullhā to speak freely and openly against the established Muhammadan beliefs. But Bullhā did not pay heed to his master's valuable advice, as is clear from this:

Bullhe nữ lok matti dẽde bullhā tữ jā baih ma-īrī vice masītā de kīh kujh hundā jo dilō namāz nā kīttī bāhrō pāk kītte kīh hundā jo andarō gaī nā palītī bin murshid kāmil bullhiā terī aīvē gaī ibādat kīttī

2 'The Arains are also called Rains.' See Rose, Glossary, Vol. 11.

¹ In Indua the term $\bar{a}l$ is confined to descendants through a daughter. Descendants through a son are called $aul\bar{u}d$.

³ This answer and the reproach were kindly given to me by Mr N. A. Waqar, and were also recited by a few kuvvālīs.

See Sai Bullie Shah, p. 106, kafi 82.
 The same sister, Mr C. F. Usborne says, remained a spinster to keep company with her bachelor brother. See trans., p. 5.

bhatth namāzā te cikkar roze kalme te phir gaī siāhī bullhā shāh shauh andarõ miliā bhullī phire lukāī.¹

To Bullhā people give advice (saying), O Bullhā, go and sit in the mosque; what avails it going to the mosque, if the heart has not said the prayer? What matters it being pure outside when from inside dirt has not gone? Without a perfect teacher, says Bullhā, your prayers are of no avail. Into the fire the prayers! in the mud the fast of ramzan! Over the kalmā black has passed. Says Bullhe Shāh, the Lord is met from within me, but the people are searching elsewhere.

Such utterances annoyed Shāh Ināyat, who practised Hagigat (reality) in the garb of Tarigat 2 to escape the fate that so many Sūfīs in Islāmic lands had met before.3 But Bullha, with the enthusiasm of a new convert, would not listen to his good counsel. This act of disobedience made Ināvat Shāh extremely angry and so he sent him away. After some time, realizing the truth of his master's advice.4 Bullhe Shah regretted his attitude and wanted to go back to him. He tried all devices but Shah Inayat ignored him. The only way then left open to Bullha was to approach him personally. But how was he to do that? He, however, knew his master's love for music and dancing. So he began to learn the arts from a dancing girl. When he had learnt them sufficiently he came to Lahore and waited for an opportunity. One day when Inayat Shah had entered a mosque, Bullhe Shāh, dressed as a woman, began to sing and dance outside it. People gathered round him as is the custom. Attracted by the music Inavat also came and stopped. Bullhā then was singing:

¹ Kanun-1-'Ishq, Vol. II, p. 211.

² Tarīqat here means the established path, i.e. Islām, and Haqīqat represents the truth of Şūfiism.

³ Like Mansūr-al-Hallāj and Shamsi Tabrīz, etc.
⁴ In those days, to speak in that strain was the greatest heresy.
Aurangzeb was very keen on punishing the Sūfīs whom he considered heretics and also friends of his late brother Dārā Shikoh. He put to death Sarmad (Sarkar, History of Aurangzeb, Vol. I, pp. 113-14) and saw that Mullā Shāh, who was very old, died in misery in Lahore; see von Kremer's article in J.A., 1869, pp. 151-3. The Qādirīs particularly dreaded him as Dārā was an initiated Qādirī (Sarkar, History of Aurangzeb, -Vol. I, p. 298).

Vatt nā marsā min lātheto yār dā ve artā isam ellībi dī zīt lokā dī mehnī kei vai kara pasar kree na il unī

· dā i i nho iāre, kr i a noī dim nārdā ve i iiā '

Tower course of I have pure in my free I Rajat ((a)), O omiade; love, in attribute of foil but for women it is a time for a come in this to be taunt I about. When small I call (my own be in a no one is to tave live a condition the (b), the Rajaa) tione knows, who is the a trat tenture of action and

When he was singing and the aw his marker prince is

Vatt nā karsā mīn rājhete vār dā ve arīā ajjajokarī rāt mere ghar rahī khā ve arīā dil diā ghundhiā khol asā nāl hass khā ve arīā.

Never again shall I be ir pride for my beloved Rājhā (God), () friend; tonight do stay in my house, O friend; undo the knots of your heart and laugh with me, O friend.

This was sufficient for Inayat to know who the singer was. Coming near he asked, 'O Singer, are you not Bullha!' 'No, hazrat,' replied the singer, 'I am not Bullha but Bhulla', (i.e. repentant).' He was forgiven and once again he came to live with his master. He remained with him till the day of his death.

The Mustic Life of Bullhe Shah

The mystic life of Bullhe Shah has three well-marked periods.

First Period

His meeting with Ināyat Shāh and his conversion to the Ṣūfī doctrines mark the first of the three periods. This period was chiefly spent in study, but he also wrote some verse. These compositions were in the style of the traditional Ṣūfī poetry of the Panjāb, i.e. simple but emotional

¹ Sāī Bullhe Shāh, kāfī 48. - 1bid., kāfī 48.

and sentimental. From the literary point of view, this poetry of Bullhā, though graceful and charming, is yet weak in thought and is, therefore, very commonplace. Here is an example: 1

Dil loce māhī yār nữ, dil loce māhī yār nữ ikk hass hass gallā kardiā, ikk rõdiā dhõdiā phirdiā kahīo phullī basant bahār nữ

Dil loce, etc.

maî nhātī dhotī raihī gaī, ikk gaṇḍh māhī dii baihī gaī bhāh lāie hār shīṅgār nữ

Dil loce, etc.

maī dūtiā ghāil kitiā, sūlā gher cūpherõ littiā ghar āve māhī didār nữ

Dil loce, etc.

bullhā huṇ sājaṇ ghar āiā, maī ghuṭ rājhaṇ gal lāiā dekh gae samundarõ pār nữ.

Dil loce, etc.

Heart craves for friend beloved, heart craves for friend beloved, some (girls, i.e. lovers) laugh and laughingly converse, others crying and wailing wander, say in this blossomed season of Spring. Heart craves, etc.

I washed and bathed in vain, one knot (grudge) now has settled in my heart, O beloved (for not coming) let me put fire to

(undo) my toilet. Heart craves, etc.

The taunts have wounded me, acute pains have surrounded me; the beloved should come for self-manifestation (to show himself to the lover). Heart craves, etc.

Bullhā, now the friend has come home, I have embraced hard my Rājhā; Behold us crossing the ocean. Heart craves, etc.

The above, though a famous $k\bar{a}/\bar{i}$, fails to reach that height of thought and force of character which are so characteristic of Bullhā's poetry.

In this period Bullhā was still attached to his Islāmic theological ideas which later on he shook off entirely. He believes in the idea of heaven, hell and earth, which he will not understand later on. Witness this:

Bullhā shauh bin koī nāhī aithe utthe dohī sarāī sambhal sambhal kadam tikāī phir āvan dūjī vār nahī utth jāg ghurāre mār nahī.²

Kānūn·i·'Ishq, Vol. I, p. 100, kāfī 17.
 ibid., Vol. I, p. 64, kāfī 1.

Bullha, without the Lord there is none here (cirtle, and riproches and bell) in both the places. Carefully, carefully let your feet fall (take the step) as for a second time you shall not come. Awake, arise and snore no more.

During this period he yet fears death and the grave, as would a pious Muhammadan

ikk roz jahāno jānā hai jā kabre vice samāņā hai terā ghosht kīriā khāņā hai kar cettā mano visār nahī utth jāg ghurāse mār nahī 1

One day you have to part from the world, in the grave you have to fit, your flesh the insects will eat, remember this, do not forget from your heart. Awake, arise and snore no more.

Here he is still clinging to the Islamic belief of only one life and does not believe in transmigration which he will later accept as part of his Advaitism.

> Tữ es jahānő jāegī, phir kadam nā ehtthe pāegī eh joban rūp vanjhāegī tai rahinā vice sansār nahī."

From this world you will part, never again shall you put your feet here; you will then take leave of this youth and nearty, you are not to live in the world.

This preliminary stage of Bullhā's mystic life does not seem to have lasted long as there is very little verse in this tone. But undue importance is given to this poetry by the Ṣūfīs of the orthodox type, because this helps them to save Bullhe Shāh from being called a 'heretic'.

Second Period

The second stage of Bullhā's mystic life perhaps began very soon after the commencement of the first. During this period he assimilated more of the Indian outlook. Here he resembles both the advanced type of Ṣūfī and a Vaiṣṇava devotee in thought, in religious emotions, and in his adoration of the $p\bar{\imath}r$ or $gur\bar{u}$. Like them he places the $gur\bar{u}$ and

God on the same level and finds no difference between the The following resembles so closely the Vaisnava lore in idea and emotion that, were it not for the name Bullha at the end, it would be hard to distinguish it:

> Ikk andheri kothari dujā dīvā nā vātī bāhō phar ke lai cale shām ve koī sang nā sāthī.1

There is only one dark chamber (world) without any lamp or wick (hope). Holding my wrist they (bad actions) are taking me, O Shām, unaccompanied and companionless.

In the above we find not only the Vaisnava feeling, but even the name Shām given to God is Vaisnava.

Again:

Bhāvē jān nā jān ve vehre ā var mere maî tere kurbān ve vehie ā var mere tere jihā mainū hor nā koi dhūndā jangal beli rohi dhunda ta sara jahan ve vehre a var mere maî tere kurbān ve vehre ā var mere lokã de bhāne cāk mahī dā rājhā lokā vicc kahīdā sādā tā dīn imān ve, vehre ā var mere mai tere kurbān ve vehre ā var mere māpe chor laggī lar tere, shāh ināvat sāž mere lāiā dī lajj pāl ve vehre ā var mere maī tere kurbān ve vehre ā var mere.2

Whether you consider me (as loved one) or not, O come, enter my courtvard.3 I sacrifice myself for thee, O come, enter my courtyard. For me there is none else like you, I search the jungles and wastes for my friend, I search the whole world, O come, enter my courtvard: I sacrifice myself for you, come, enter my courtyard. For others you are a cowherd,4 I call you Rājhā when in company (but) you are my religion and faith, O come, enter my courtyard; I sacrifice myself for you, O come, enter my courtyard. Leaving parents I have held your garment, 5 O Lord have compassion, 6 my master save me

2 Kāfī 49. ¹ Sangīt Sāgar, p. 289. 3 Vehrā also stands for street, but generally it is a courtyard.

4 Cak; one who looks after the buffaloes only, but here we have translated it as cowherd, which is more comprehensible in English.

compassion.

⁵ Lar lagana means to accept or follow the person. In a Hindu nuptial ceremony the end of the garment of the bridegroom and the veil of the bride are tied together in a knot, which means that they accept each other and shall walk together, hence this expression, lar lagana.

6 Ināyat here stands both for gurū (Ināyat Shāh) and God's

the sharpe of this long love (by coming back). O enter my courtyard; I sacrifice myself for you, come, enter my courtyard.

Bullha's adoration and respect for his garā me proband. He finds no difference between God and his hada and sings to him in the same strain as to God:

Pahilī paurī prem dī pulsarāte derā hājī makke hajj karn maī mukh dedaā terā āi ināyat qādirī hatth pakrī merā maī udīkā kar rahī kadī a kar derā dhūnd shahir sabh bhāhā kāsad ghallā kehrā carhī ā dolī prem dī dil dharke merā āo ināyat qādirī jī cāhe merā.

The first step of love (on the ladder of love) is (like) being on the pulsarat.² Pilgrims may perform hajj, but I look to your face. Come, Ināyat Qādirī, and hold my hand (be my support). I am waiting, come some time and make a stay. I have searched the whole town, what messenger is hall I send? Having mounted the palanquin of love my heart (now) palpitates; come, Ināyat Qādirī, my heart desires you.

At this time Bullhe Shah also began to believe in karmas, which is an entirely Indian theory. Here he refers to his bad actions thus:

Ved pothī kī dosh hai hīne karam hamāre.4

What fault is it of the book ved," my kurmus are low.

At the end of the second period Bullhe Shāh appears to have some vision of the Lord he was seeking. He had the vision which the Ṣūfīs long to have, but he had not as yet attained that stage where differences vanish away. He got his vision in the orthodox fashion. He was not

Bullhe Shah means.

¹ Kānūn-i-'Ishq, Vol. V, p. 99, kāfī 16.

² This is the Stratu'l Mustagim of the Qur'an.

Qāsid in Panjābi Şūfi language is both a messenger and a postman.
 It is employed in the same sense as witho in the Vaisnavo language.
 Kānūn-i-Ishq, Vol. I, p. 125, kāfi 37.

⁵ By ved he does not mean the Vedas but a book of knowledge. In the Panjāb ved-pothī 14 an expression used for any book containing knowledge. For example, a book on astrology will be called ved-pothī because it gives knowledge with regard to one's future, and that is exactly what

conscious of it every moment of his life. It was an occasional occurrence. He had that divine vision like the great Sūfīs and the imagatas, through the paths indicated by their respective religions. Like them, Bullhe Shāh's vision of the Lord was also tinged with the colours of Islām. He sings of his vision in the traditional way, exalting the Prophet and through the verses of his Qur'ān:

Hun maī lakkhiā -olmā yār, jis de husan dā garm bazār jad ahad ikk ikklā, sī, nā zāhar koī tajallā sī nā rabb rasūl nā allāh sī nā zabār kahār becū va bacagūnā sī be shubhā be namūnā sī nā koī raṅg namūnā si, huṇ gunāgū hazār. piārā pahin pushākā āiā, ādam apaṇā nām dharāiā ahad tō ban ahmad āiā, nabiā dā sardār kūn kahā fakūn kahāiā, becūnī se cū banāiā ahad de vice mīm ralāiā tā kittā aiḍ pasār.¹

Now I have seen the handsome friend whose beauty's demand is great. When the One was single and alone there was no light manifest. There was neither God and the Prophet or Allāh, nor was there the cruel tyrant. The One was without likeness and incomparable, and without doubt and without form. He had no colour or shape, (but) now a thousand varieties. The dear One wearing the costumes came, and Adam got his name fixed. From the One, Ahmad was made and the chief of the Prophets. He said kun and fayakun was said, so out of no likeness He created likeness. In ahad He inserted $m\bar{\imath}m$ (i.e. produced Aḥmad) and then made the universe.²

Third Period

The third and the last period of Bullhā's mystic life was unique. Here he resembles no Ṣūfī or Vaiṣṇava of the Pañjāb or the rest of India. During this time he is a firm believer in advaita and sees that all-pervading spirit, God, in all and independently of all religions. Like a true Vedāntist he does not only see Him in friends and cobelievers but in heathens and opponents also. Here lies his greatness. He says:

¹ Kānūn-i-'Ishq, kūfī 57.

² Literally, so great a spread

Kih kardā nī kīh kirdā
koī pu who khā dilbar ki kirdā
āp ikko kaī lakkh ghardā de mīlak sibh ghir ghir di ridā
Kih kardā, etc.
mūsā ite phirūn banā ko, do noke kiū lardī
Kih kardī, otw.
hāzar nāzir tūhē hai, curak kits nū knivdā
Kih kirdā, otc.)

What does He, friends, what does He? Does comeone isk what the Beloved does? He is one, but the houses are millions and He is lord of every house. What does He, friends, what does He? Whatever side I glance I find Him. He keeps company with each one. Creating Moses and Pharaoh (thus) becoming two, why does he fight? What does He, friends, what does He? You are ever omnipresent, (then) whom does Cucak² take away? What does He, friends, what does He? Does someone ask what the Beloved does?

And again

Pāiā hai kujh pāiā hai, sattgurū ne allakh lakhāiā hai kahū vair parā kahū belī hai, kahū mujnu hai kahū lailī hai kahū ap gurū kahū celī hai, sabh apanā rāh dikhāiā hai kahū cor banā kahū shāh jī hai kahū mambar te bahī kāzī hai kahū tog bahādur gāzī hai, āp apanā panth batāiā hai kahū masjad kā vartārā hai, kahū baniā thākar dvūrā hai kahū bairāgī jap dhārā hai, kahū shekhun ban ban ūiū hai kahū turak musallā parhde ho, kahū bhagat hindu jap karde bo

kahū gor kanī vice parde ho, har ghar ghar lāḍ laḍāiā hai bullhā shahu dā maī muhtāj hua, māhrāj mile merā kāj hua darshan pīā dā ilāj hūā, laggā ishk tā eh gun gāiā hai pāiā hai kujh pāiā hai.

I have found, I have found something. My true gurū has made manifest the Unmanifest. Somewhere It 4 is an enemy, somewhere It is a friend, somewhere It is Majnū, somewhere It is Lailā, somewhere It is the preceptor, somewhere It is the disciple, in all It has manifested Its own path. Somewhere It is a thief, somewhere a bestower of gifts, somewhere sitting in the

1 Künün-1-'Ishq, küfî 85.

3 Kānūn-i-Ishq, Vol. II, p. 160, kāfī 59.

An allusion to the story of Rājhā and Hīr. Cucak, the Siāl chief, enraged at the attachment of his daughter Hir to his cowherd Rājhā, separated them by keeping Hīr in close custody and later on by giving her in marriage to a man of his own choice.

⁴ āp has no gender, so we have rendered it by 'It' which stands for allakh, the brahm who is beyond sex.

pulpit It is a qāzī, somewhere It is Tegh Bahādur. 1 the ahāzi who has told of his own path (sect). Somewhere It as a mosque 2 is in use, somewhere It has become a temple.3 somewhere It is a vairāgī in meditation absorbed, somewhere It becomes clad, clad as shaikhs, somewhere as Muslims on the musallā 4 read the prayers, somewhere as Hindu devotees repeat God's name. Somewhere You are engaged in digging graves in each house, 5 You (God) are fondly fondled. Bullha says, of the Master (God) I became desirous, the great king (Inavat) met (me) and my work (wish) was done (realized). For the manifestation of the dear One (God) was my cure. for having loved (God) I have sung (i.e. have been able to sing) this attribute (of God).

This highly intellectual and clear conception of the divine was only possible to a few great mystics like Bāyazīd Bistāmī, Al-Hallāj, and Jalāl-ud-dīn Rūmī. Yet we might mention here that they obtained this after having spent their lives in established dogmas, willingly or unwillingly, and after having struggled hard to become free of them.6 But Bullhe Shah appears to have obtained the advaita conception of God soon after his initiation into Sūfiism, because his poetry abounds in this strain. Among the Indian Sūfīs we hardly find another who beheld God as clearly in all creation, bad or good, as Bullhā did. If there were any possible exceptions they would be Mulla Shah?

2-3 Somewhere in the cult of the mosque is 'It' represented and somewhere in that of the temple.

4 A prayer carpet.

 House here signifies way, path, place.
 Both Al-Hallaj and Bistami could not break with the established beliefs. Hallāj went to Mekka on pilgrimage many times (see Massignon, La Passion, Vol. I, pp. 3, 4, 5). When they became free and realized the truth, it was towards the end of their lives.

7 Mulla Shah was a disciple of Mia Mir of Lahore. He attained great fame in Kashmir and was waited upon by princes and poor alike. He was the spiritual preceptor of Dārā Shikoh. On his accession to the Mughal throne, Aurangzeb ordered Mullā Shāh, who then was old and infirm, to appear before him at Delhi, but later, on the intercession of his sister Fatima, changed his orders. He was, however, compelled to come down to Lahore, where he died in misery. See Claud Field, Mystics and Saints of Islām, p. 180.

¹ Tegh Bahadur means 'brave of the sword', but here it stands for the ninth guru of the Sikhs who was tried by the quzis at the order of Aurangzeb and executed at Delhi in the year 1676.

and Sarmad.¹ Mullã Shāh, though in no way inferior to Bullhā in his pantheistic philosophy and its realization in life, yet lacked the moral courage to declare it. Possibly out of fear he attached importance to such religious prescriptions as *Ramzān* and the obligatory daily prayers.² Sarmad, the cynic philosopher, who walked about naked in the streets of Delhi, though he had reached the highest state of mysticism, as is clear from the following, could not get free from the superiority of the Jewish theology:

My friend, the naked sword Thou comest I know Thee, in whatever guise Thou comest.³

His denial of Christ as prophet on the authority of the Old Testament,4 and his other belief that God was material substance symbolized by a human figure,5 did not accord with his pantheistic thought. Were he a true pantheist he would see God in all teachers and not only in Muhammad and deny him in Christ. This difference between the pantheistic concepts of Bullha and of Sarmad illustrates the fact that the latter realized the Truth only partially and at moments, while the former lived with Truth and in Truth. sees the Beloved in all and ignores the mirror in which He is reflected. If the Beloved is not seen in full grandeur in the meanest of the mean and the lowest of the low as well as in the highest and the best, then the lover has not The Beloved is ever the same, and if the lover found him. sees Him differently in different creatures, then whose is The lover's surely, who has not yet fully realized the fault? Bullhā had reached that stage where proportions, differences and pairs of opposites do not exist. He saw God in Muhammad as well as in Christ, Krishna, a poor beggar in the street, or his own self. Witness this:

¹ For accounts of Sarmad see Indian Antiquary, 1910, pp. 89-90 and 191.2

² Claud Field, Mystics and Saints of Islam, p. 180. He reported those who dispensed with the prescribed fast and prayers, etc.

³ Sarkar, History of Aurangzeb, Vol. I, p. 113. 4 ibid., p. 110.

Bindrāban mê gaū carāve, lankā car ke nād vajāve makke dā ban hājiāve vāh vāh rang vatāi dā hun kī thī āp chapāidā.¹

In Brindaban you grazed the cattle, invading Lañka ² you made the sound (of victory), you (again) come as the pilgrim of Mekka, you have made wonderful changes of form, what are you hiding yourself from now ?

and:

Saīyo huņ sājan maī pāio ī, har har de vic samāio i.³

O friends, now I have found the Beloved, into each and every one He has entered.

The superiority of Bullhā's pantheistic conception of Godhead lies in the fact that he broke all shackles of country, religion, convention and sect. The integrity of the universal soul and His omnipresence so deeply convinced him that no differences existed for him. He became one with Him, the divine, and experienced that cosmopolitan joy which knows no limits and divisions. He says:

Bullhā kī jāṇā maī kaun nā maī moman vice masītā, nā maī vice kufar diā rītā nā maī pākā vice palītā, nā maī mūsā nā phirauṇ bullhā kī jānā maī kaun

nā maī andar vaid katābā, nā vice bhaṅgā nā sharābā nā vice riṅdā mast kharābā, nā vice jāgaṇ nā vice sauṇ bullhā kī jānā maī kaun

nā vice shādī nā gamnākī, nā maī vice palītī pākī nā maī ābī nā maī khākī, nā maī ātish nā maī pauņ bullhū kī jāņā maī kaun

nā maī arbī nā lahaurī, nā maī hindī shahir nagaurī nā maī hindū turk pashorī, nā maī rahindā vice nadauņ bullhā kī jūnā mai kaun

nā maī bhed mazhab dā pāiā, nā maī ādam havā jāiā nā maī apņā nām dharāiā, nā vicc baithan nā vicc bhauņ bullhā kī jāṇã maī kauņ

¹ Kānūn-i-Ishq, Vol. II, p. 239, kāfī 90.

² Caylon

³ Kānūn-i-'Ishq, Vol. II, p. 162, kāfī 59.

avval ākhar ēp nữ jāṇā, nā koi dūjā hor prehānā maithŏ hor nā koi siānā. Bullhā shahā kharā hai keun. bullhā ki jānā mai kaun.¹

Bullhā, what do I know who I am - Neither am I a Maslim is the mosque nor am I in the ways of poguism nor among the pure or sinful, nor am I Moses or the Pharaoh; Bullha, what do I know who I am Neither in the books of doctors I, nor included I in blang and wine, nor in the wine-house in the company of the bad, neither awake nor asleep. Bullha. what do I know who I am ! Neither in happiness nor in sorrow, nor in sin or purity nor of water nor of earth, nor in fire nor in air. Bullha, what do I know who I am? I am not of Arabia nor of Lahore, nor an Indian nor of the city of Nagaur, neither a Hindu nor a Muslim of Peshawar, nor do I live in Nadaun. Bullhā, what do I know who I am? Neither have I found the secret of religion, nor of Adam and Eve am I born, neither have I taken a name, my life is neither settled nor unsettled. Bullha, what do I know who I am? Myself I know as the first and the last, none else as second do I recognize, none else is wiser than 1. Bullha, who is the true master?

Such pantheism with all its grandeur, according to Mr Kremer, has also a dangerous side and tends to atheism and materialism, while the passage from it to most cynical epicureanism is also a very natural thing. True as the statement is, it does not apply to the pantheism of Bullhe Shāh. He was not an exception to the rule like Mullā Shāh and Prince Dārā Shikoh and a few others, but he was a pantheist of a different type. We have stated above that the pantheism of Bullhe Shāh was Hindu in its entirety and therefore differed a good deal from the pantheism of the Ṣūfīs. Bullhā's pantheistic thought was accompanied

¹ ibid., Vol. II, pp. 266-7, kāfī 114.

² This is a question which the lover or the Seeker who has become one with the Lord puts to himself.

^{&#}x27; See ch. 11, p. 25.

¹ Journal Assatique, 1869, pp. 157-8: 'Elle (doctrine panthéiste) conduit a l'athéisme et au materialisme; en effet qu'y avait-il de plus naturel que de passer de ce panthéisme politique a l'épicuriane le plus cynique?'

⁵ Mr Kremer says that only a small number of men including Mulla. Shah and the prince Dara could manage to keep their characters spotless. ibid., p. 159.

by its allied doctrines, reincarnation and karmy. He disagreed with the Sūfīs who believed 'qu'il n'v pas d'existence individuelle après la mort'.1 He was aware of the fact that complete annihilation, for which the real mystic soul craves, could not be obtained in one life, (being not so easy as it is ordinarily thought to be), but demanded many existences. And then it was not many lives or ecstatic contemplations alone that made annihilation possible. His secret of merging in the Universal Spirit was based on karma. When the mind and the heart had entirely purged themselves of all sin, when passion and ambition to achieve material happiness had vanished completely, when God was ever present in his thought and act, and when the only material tie was a sense of rightful duty without attachment. then alone was the seeker fit to lose his individual existence after death, and not before. This was an impossible task to accomplish, as even small steps away from the right path might cause another life or render the seeker unfit for complete fanā. The seeker therefore dreaded atheism and a plunge in material pleasures more than indulgence in them. This unique phase of Bullha's conviction made his pantheism free from all danger of becoming materialism or atheism.

Another superiority of Bullha over other Sūfīs was that he never took part in the work of conversion.² His advaita, which was Indian in its essence, had so overpowered him, nay had transformed him in such a way that any sort of conversion, mass or individual, was beyond his understanding. He had understood the real sense of ana'l-Hagg. and so to think of conversion from one religion to another was to mock his own belief. All religions to him were the

¹ Journal Asiatique, 1869, p. 159.
2 Even Al-Hallāj, whom Bullhā often mentions in his poetry for having told the truth, spent a good deal of his life m preaching Islām and persuading people to come to the path indicated by Muhammad. See La Passion, p. 4. It might be that when he had attained the state of ana'l-Haqq he no longer believed in conversion, but we cannot say anything definitely since he was hanged soon after the event.

same, us one was more efficient than another a larging the beloved. It is evident from his postry the zeal tractile sinterity of the seeker for the soul! that The election commenced of religion to specimen. We are never or a char in this respect to Musical and party converter to dispute the paintal sum fits agich bulla at ined

Auer de dead of Inayat, Buline Shan detuned to Kasur. He remained faithful to his beloved and to himself by not marrying. The sister who und a food any also remained single and kept nitr company to his list years. He died in A.D. 1758 and was buried in Kasur, where his tomb still exists.

Bullha, says the tradition, was not undersood by his own family and people 2 who gave him up for lost. But he had captivated the hearts of the Pañjābīs and had the support of the masses. For the Panjabis he is still alive. inspiring them to sing of the eternal Beloved with whom he has become one.

The Poetry of Bullhe Shah

Sūfī poetry all over the world is erotic in expression. but in meaning it is essentially symbolic. 'Almost all the Sufi poets wrote about the Divine Beloved in the terms applied to their beautiful women.' The mystic poetry, therefore, if literally taken, seems sensuous and monotonous. In India the Sūfīs inherited this tradition with the difference. that while in Persia and other Islamic countries the Beloved was described both as man and woman, in India He became a man, and the seeker or the lover became a woman. This essential change is due to Hindu, especially Vaisnava,

3 Hadland Davis, Jalālu'ddīn Rūmī, p. 23.

¹ Almost all Şūfis took part in conversion-work, even the avowed opponents of Şūfism. Mr Zahūru'd-Din Almad, in his Mystic Tendencies of Islām, admits this (p. 142).

² He himself refers to the bigoted attitude of his relatives

influence.1 Apart from this the Sūfīs generally borrowed from the Persians, as we have mentioned above, the terms for describing the different parts of the Beloved. Even the rose garden and the bulbul, which are characteristic of Persian verse, were unhesitatingly borrowed. In Pañiāhī Sūfī poetry, however, the influence was much less than in other literary forms. Bullhe Shāh, the king of the Pañjāhī mystics, seems free from this foreign influence, and his poetry is far from being erotic. Apart from a very few poems which he wrote in the early part of his mystic life. his verse is entirely exempt from human love. No doubt he called Him the Beloved and Rajha, but never went on to describe his different limbs. During the third period of his Şūfī life the Beloved was the all-pervading universal soul and so there was no difference between two beings belonging to different sexes. If there was some physical difference, it was immaterial to the poet. So Bullha talked of the eternal Beloved in terms highly spiritual and pure, as behoves a real seeker. This was an innovation Bullhā brought about in the Panjābī Sūfī verse.2 The change was due to the following causes. Firstly, there was the natural growth of his own character. He never sought the shelter of a woman's love. He fell in love with the universal Lord and, therefore, found worldly love entirely superfluous. This was the first and the chief cause why his • poetry was essentially non-erotic. Secondly, it was due to the growth of his spirituality. Once he had cast off the •veil of ignorance and had found the Lord, he had found his own self. He therefore could not write poetry in the material sense, following tradition and poetic convention. Nowhere in his kāfīs do we find fabulous descriptions of the eyes, nose, neck, cheeks, etc. of the Beloved. So we can safely

 $^{^{1}}$ In Vaisnava poetry, God is Krishna the cowherd and the seeker, Rādhā, is a mılkmaid.

² Bāhū's poetry is also devoid of human love, but so very little of his verse is found that it is hard to come to any definite conclusions.

say that his poetry represents truly what is naturally felt in loving the divine. His verse is suffused with the love divine. This is the greatness of Bullhe Shāh the poet.

The second reason for his greatness is that his verse is most simple, yet very beautiful in form. If it is pathetic it is full of vivacity, if it is intellectual it is full of feeling. It has no ornamental beauty. Its beauty lies in thought and in the facility and simplicity with which that thought is expressed. Who could express with greater facility his union with God?

Rājhā rājhā kardī nī maī āpe rājhā hoī saddo nī mainū dhīdo rājhā, hīr nā ākko koī rājhā maī vice maī rājhe vice hor khiāl nā koī maī nahī uh āpe hai, appņī āp kare dil joī rājhā rājhā kardī nī maī āpe rājhā hoī saddo nī maīnū dhīdo rājhā hīr nā ākho koī hatth khūnḍī mere agge maṅgū, moḍhe bhūrā loī Bullhā hīr saletī dekho, kitthe jā khaloī rājhā rājhā kardī nī maī āpe rājhā hoī saddo nī maǐnū dhīdo rājhā, hīr nā ākho koī 1

Repeating Rājhā Rājhā, friends. myself I have become Rājhā. Call me (now) Dhīdo ² Rājhā, none should call me Hīr. Rājhā is in me and I am in Rājhā, no other thought there is, I do not exist, He himself exists, He amuses himself. Repeating Rājhā Rājhā, etc. In my hand the staff, before me the wealth, ³ and round my shoulders the rough blanket; Bullhā, behold Hīr of Siāl, where she has gone and stood. Repeating Rājhā Rājhā, friends, etc.

Bullhā also did not follow the conventions regarding the similes, verse-forms and alankāric beauties. Here lies his poetic originality in which he excels most of his Indian and almost all of his Panjābī Ṣūfī contemporaries, predecessors and successors.

1 Kānūn-i-Ishq, Vol. II, p. 262, kāfī 109.

² Dhīdo is a cowherd who looks after buffaloes. That was the name of Rājhā when he became a cowherd of the Siāl chief.

3 Cattle in those days were the wealth of the tribal chiefs. When he drove the cattle to the fields, the cowherd Rajha walked behind them with a staff in his hand, and a rough blanket over his shoulders. Bullhā did not write much, but what he wrote was inspired and to the point. A great amount of poetry is said to have been composed by the poet, but one can easily distinguish the real from the counterfeit by the force and strength of the language and the directness of thought which is so characteristic of Bullhā's verse.

We have already seen how familiar he was with all that was Panjābī in tradition and beauty, and how gracefully he spoke of it. He never attempted to explore those regions of which he had no real knowledge. He was a child of the Panjāb and so sang in his mother-tongue, in the old original verse-forms of his land, taking his similes from the life that was familiar to him. His poetry, though remarkably abstract, is not incomprehensible. We give below a few of his kāfās for their literary interest:

Merī bukkal de vicc cor nī, merī bukkal de vicc cor kihnū kūk sunāvā nī, merī bukkal de vicc cor corī corī nikal giā nī, jagg vicc paigiā shor merī bukkal de vicc cor musalmān siviā to darde, hindū darde gor dovē ese de vicc marde, iho dohā dī khor merī bukkal de vicc cor kitte rāmdās kitte phate muḥammad eho kadīmī shor miṭt giā dohā dā jhagṛā nikal piā kujh hor merī bukkal de vicc cor arsh manūrō milīā bāgā, suṇiā takht Lāhaur shāh ināyat ghundhīā pāiā, lakk chip khicdā dor merī bikkal de vicc cor.¹

Within the folds of my veil was the thief, O friend, within the folds of my veil was the thief; to whom shouting at the top of my voice should I tell that within the folds of my veil was the thief? Stealthily, stealthily, he has gone out, and (this) has caused surprise in the world. The Mussulmans fear the crematorium, and the Hindus fear the tomb, both die in this (fear) which is the trouble of both; somewhere it is Rāmdās, somewhere it is Fateh Muḥammad; this is the eternal struggle. The difference of both has ceased, as something different has turned up. From the high heavens the prayer-calls were made

¹ Kānūn-i-'Ishq, Vol. II, kāfī 64.

and they were heard at the throne 1 of Lahore; Shāh Ināyat tied the knots and now He (God), hidden behind, pulls the strings.

Here Bullhe Shāh stands for the unity, so essential for human welfare, of the followers of different religions and sects. He bases his argument on the fact that he sees God installed in the heart of each individual, no matter to what religion he belongs. The expression of the sentiment is simple, impressive, and beautiful.

Hindū nā nahì musalmān, behīe trinjhan taj abhamān sunnī nā nahì ham shīā, sulh kul kā mārag liā bhūkkhe nā nahì ham rajje, nange nā nahì ham kajje rõde nā nahì ham hassde, ujare nā nahī ham vassde pāpī nā sudharmī nā, pāp pun kī rāh nā jā bulhā shahū har citlāge hindū turk do jan tiāge.²

Neither Hindu nor Mussulman, let us sit to spin, abandoning pride (of religion). Neither a sunnī nor a shī'a, I have taken the path of complete peace and unity. Neither am I hungry (poor) nor satisfied (rich), nor naked I nor covered. Neither am I weeping nor laughing nor deserted nor settled. Neither a sinner, I, nor a pure one, I am not walking in the way of either sin or virtue. Bullhā, in all hearts I feel the Lord, (therefore) Hindu and Mussulmans both have I abandoned.

Bullhe Shāh was an impartial critic of bigotry and those set rules and regulations of a church which forbid free expression of the divine love. Not finding any difference between the spiritual codes of Islām and Hinduism he allotted them both a place inferior to that which he assigned to the divine love. In the following $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}$ he gives a dialogue between the clerical code and love, in which love comes out victorious:

Ishk sharā dā jhagarā paigiā dil dā bharm maṭāvā maī savāl sharā de javāb ishk de hazrat ākh sunāvā maī sharā kahe cal pās mullā de sikkh lai adab adābā nū ishk kahe ikke harf baterā thapp rakkh hor katābā nū sharā kahe kar pañj asnāṇā, alag mandir kī pujā re ishk kahe terī pūjā jhūṭhī je ban baiṭhō dūjā re

Seat of Ināyat Shāh at Lahore.
 Kānūn-i-'Ishq, Vol. II, kāfī 73.

sharā kahe kujh sharm hayā kar band kar is camkāre nữ ishk kahe eh ghungat kaisā khullan de nazāre nữ sharā kahe cal masjid andar hak namāz adā kar lai ishk kahe cal maikhāne vice pīke sharāb naphal parh lai sharā kahe cal bihīshtī caliye, bihīshtā de meve khāvā ge ishk kahe otthe paihrā sāḍā āp hatthī vartāvāge sharā kahe cal hajj kar moman pulsarāt langanā re ishk kahe buā yār da kābbā utthō mūl nā halnā re sharā kahe shāh mansur nữ sūlī utte cāriā sī ishk kahe tusā changā kīttā buai yār de vāriā sī ishk dā darzā arsh mūallā sirtāz laulākī re ishk viceō paidā kīttā bullhā ājiz khākī re.¹

Love and Law 2 are struggling (in the human heart); the doubt of the heart will I settle (by relating) the questions of Law, and the answers of Love I will describe, holy Sir; Law says: Go to the mulla and learn the rules and regulations. Love says (answers): One letter is enough, shut up and put away other books. Law says: Perform the five baths 4 and worship alone in the temple. Love says: Your worship is false if you consider yourself separate. Law says: Have shame and hide the illumination (enlightenment). Love says: What is this veil for? Let the vision be open. Law says: Go inside the mosque and perform the duty of prayer. Love says: Go to the wine-house and drinking wine read the naphal.6 Law says: Let us go to heaven, we will eat the fruits of heaven. Love says: There we are custodians or rulers and we ourselves will distribute the fruits of heaven. Law says: O faithful one, come perform the hajj, you have to cross the bridge. Love says: The door of the Beloved is ka'aba, from there I will not stir. Law says: On the cross 8 we placed Shāh Manşūr. Love says: You did well, you made him enter the door of the Beloved. The rank of Love is the highest heaven, the crown of creation.9 Out of Love He has created Bullha, humble, and from dust.

The following were the true feelings of Bullhe Shāh which he was not supposed to express. But being unable to

² Sharī'at. In Pañjābī it is called sharā or sharīyat.

⁶ Supererogatory prayers.

 $^{^1}$ This $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}$ was kindly given to me by the late Mīrāsī Maula Bakhsh of Lahore.

³ A Muhammadan priest, but here it stands for priests of any

⁴ Baths at five sanctuaries, an act considered to be holy by the Hindus.

⁵ Not one with the universal self.

 ⁷ Siraţu'l-mustagīm.
 9 Laulāka lamā khalaqtu'laflāka (Hadīs-i-qudsī).

hide them any longer he pours them out with that vehemence and force which ardent but genuine suppressed thought generally possesses. Besides, the beauty of this poem lies in the fact that though Bullhā uses the very words and expression which an enraged Pañjābī would use, he carefully avoids all that could in the least make it vulgar or violent. How many poets could express great philosophic truth with such force and so briefly and sweetly as Bullhā did?

Mũh ãi bật nã rahindi hai

Jhūth ākhā te kujh baccdā hai, sacc ākkhiā bhāmbar macdā hai dil dohā gallā to jaccdā hai, jacc jacc ke jehbā kahindī hai

mữh ãi bất nã rahindi hai a di hai, sãnữ bật malữmi sabh

ikk lāzm bāt adab dī hai, sānữ bāt malūmī sabh dī hai har har vice sūrat rabb dī hai, kahữ zahar kahữ chappē dī hai mữh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

jis pājā bhet kalandardā, rāh khojīā apane andardā sukkhvāsī hai is mandar dā, jitthe carhdī hai nā lahindī hai mữh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

etthe duniā vicc hanerā hai ate tillkaņ bāzī vehrā hai andar varke dekho kehrā hai, bāhar khalkat pai dhūndēdī hai mūh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

etthe lekhā pāŭ pasārā hai isdā vakkharā bhet niārā hai ikk sūrat dā camkārā hai jīŭ einag dārū vice paīdī hai

mữh ãi bắt nã rahindi hai

kite nāzo adā dikhlāī dā, kite ho rasūl milāī dā kite āshak baņ baņ āī dā, kite jān judāī sahindī hai.

mữh ãi bặt nã rahindi hai

jadő zāhar hoe nūr horī, jal gae pahār koh tūr horī tadő dār carhe mansūr horī, utthe shekhī nā maīdī taidi hai mūh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

je zāhar karā asrār tāī sabh bhul jāvan takrār tāī phir māran bullhe yār tāī, atthe makhfī gall sohindī hai mữh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

asã parhīā ilm tahkīkī hai, ulthe ikko haraf hakīkī hai hor jhagarā sabh vadhīkī hai aīvē rouļā pā pā bahindī hai mūh āī bāt nā rahindī hai

bullhā shahu asāthō vakkh nahī, bin shahu thī dūjā kakkh nahī par vekkhan vālī akkh nahī, tāhī jān pai dukkh sahindī hai mūh āī bāt nā rahindī hai.¹

The speech that has come into the mouth cannot be withheld. If I state an untruth something remains, by telling the truth

1 Kānūn-i-Ishq, Vol. II, kāfī 70.

the fire spreads; 1 of both (truth and untruth) the heart is disgusted 2 and in disgust the tongue speaks. The speech, etc. One necessary thing concerns religion, but to me all things are known: everything is the image of God, somewhere it is visible somewhere hidden. The speech, etc. He who has discovered the secret of the saint (pir or gurū), (he) has found the path of his inner self and is the happy resident of this temple (selfrealization) where there is no rise or setting. The speech, etc. Here on earth is darkness, and the courtyard (path) is slippery; look within, who is there? Outside, the crowd is searching (for God). The speech, etc. Here the account (karma) has spread its feet, the secret of it is different and unique. Of one image (God) there is the light as a spark falls into wine. The speech, etc. Somewhere He (God) shows coquetry, somewhere He brings Muhammad. somewhere as a lover He comes, somewhere His soul suffers separation. The speech, etc. When light (God) became visible, the mountain of Sinai was aflame, again on the cross mounted Mansur, there exists no boasting of mine or yours. The speech, etc. If I proclaim the secrets, all quarrel (of religions) will be forgotten (cease); then they (the clergy) will kill the friend Bullha; here on earth hidden speech (ambiguous) is charming. The speech, etc. I have studied the science of search (divine) and therein only one word is genuine. All other arguing is additional (and unnecessary) and useless noise is made. The speech, etc. Bullha the Lord is not separate from us, apart from the Lord nothing else exists: but there is no seeing eye, hence the soul is suffering pain. The speech, etc.

Sources of Information

Pañjāb University MS. No. 374, Folios 2-14, 743. In Gurmukkhī characters. This MS. contains a few sayings of Bullhe Shāh. The compiler in an appended verse says that he was called Pūran Dās and compiled the book in 1861, Samvatt 1884. This is the oldest MS. of Bullhā's sayings found up to date.

Panjāb University MS. No. 4684 also contains some $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}s$ of the saint-poet. They are written in a very bad hand. It seems that the pious desire to put in writing all the poet's religious verse led the copyist to insert some of Bullhe Shāh's compositions with which he was not well acquainted. He collected stanzas from different poems to

¹ Dissensions arise. It is a Pañjābī expression.

² Of truth for hiding it and of untruth because it is not reality.

complete the one he had begun. It does not seem to be a very old MS.; at the utmost it is eighty years old. It is in Gurmukkhī characters.

Kāfīā Bullhe Shāh, MS. found in the library of Dr Hifzur-Rahman of Lahore. This is a collection of some poems of Bullhe Shāh written in a good hand in Urdū characters.

Four pages from a lost MS., the personal property of the writer. The poems are correct but the handwriting is not very good. In Urdū characters.

Now we come to the printed sources for the life, teachings and sayings of Bullhe Shāh. Since Bullhe Shāh is enthroned in the hearts of all Pañjābīs, Hindus or Muslims, books and pamphlets have been published in Urdū, Gurmukkhī and Hindī. Some of these have gone through many editions. We mention here only those which are well known.

Concerning the accounts of the life of the poet we can suggest the following:

Khazīnat-ul-Aṣfiā by Muftī Ghulām Sarvar of Lahore, in Persian prose. It gives a brief account of the life of Bullhe Shāh.¹

Taḥqīqāt-Cishtī, by Nūr Aḥmad Chishtī, also gives an account of Bullhā's life.

Bāgh-i-Awliyā-e-Hind by Muḥammad Dīn, in Urdū characters but in Pañjābī verse. The author gives short sketches of the lives of Bullhe Shāh and his master Shāh Ināyat.

A pamphlet on the life of Bullhe Shāh was writter by Mr C. F. Usborne of the I.C.S. The original is not traceable but an Urdū translation by Zia-ud-Dīn Aḥmad, printed at Delhi in A.H. 1338 (A.D. 1919) is available. It gives some interesting information on the life of the saintly poet, collected from various sources.

The following are the names of a few printed books on his poetry. They are mostly collections of his compositions, but some of them have good introductions giving important information on various episodes of his life and some notes on his verse:

¹ Hope Press, Lahore. Printed in A.H. 1284.

Kānūn-i-'Ishq' by Anwar 'Alī Shāh of Rohtak. The work of Mr Alī Shāh is admirable so far as general information and selection of verse are concerned The author fails miserably when he tries to prove that Bullhe Shah was a strict mosque-going Muslim 2

Sāī Bullhe Shāh 3 by Sundar Singh Nirula, in Gurmukkhī. This is a collection of 116 kāfīs, a bārāmāh and athavārā of Bullhe Shāh. It contains a short sketch of the life and teachings of the poet. The Panjabi meanings of those few Persian and Arabic words which sometimes occur in Bullhā's verse have been given in footnotes. is a very fine and authentic collection.

Hans Cog 4 by Bābā Buddh Singh. This book on Pañiābī literature contains a chapter on the poetry of Bullhe Shāh. It is in Gurmukkhī characters.

Bullhe Shāh 5 edited by Dr Mohan Singh, in Gurmukkhī. This book contains only fifty poems of Bullhe Shah. Though very well brought out, it is full of information which has practically no concern with the subject. The explanations and annotations on the original poems are far from satisfactory, as everywhere the editor, desirous of showing the superiority of his own faith, has inserted compositions of the Sikh Gurus.

Kāfīā Hazrat Bullhe Shāh Sāhib Kasūrī 6 edited by Bhāī Prem Singh of Kasur. It is a very good collection, in Urdū characters. The compositions in it are said to have been collected from various

MSS, and other sources.

Besides these there are many small collections in pamphlet form. They contain mostly those poems which

Printed at Alam Press, Lahore, and published by Chanan Din Allāh
 Vāle kī kaumī Dukān, Kashmiri Bazar, Lahore. It is in Urdū.
 For the sake of convenience we have referred to this collection for

the quotations given above.

§ Published by Bhāīs Paratab Singh Sunder Singh, Mai Seva, Amritsar,

4 Published by Phullvārī Agency, Hall Bazar, Amritsar, 3rd edition,

5 Published by the Panjab University in 1930.

6 Sewak Machine Press, Lahore.

are included in the above-mentioned books, and therefore need not be named here.

Apart from MSS. and printed works there is another source of information. That is the oral tradition preserved by the kavvūlīs and minstrels. Some of these, attached to the tomb of Bullhe Shāh and that of his master Ināyat Shāh, have been of great help to me. Of course one should bear in mind that the information they furnish is mostly in the form of legends and stories. Between them they relate the authentic incidents and sing the original verse. This source is rich and helps in establishing the facts concerning the life and work of the poet.

CHAPTER V

'ALĪ HAIDAR

(A.D. 1690-1785)

'ALĪ ḤAIDAR, the Ṣūfī poet, was born at Kāziā in the Multan district, in the year A.H. 1101 (A.D. 1690).¹ He passed, says the tradition, the greater part of his life in the village of his birth, where he died in A.H. 1199 or the year 1785 of the Christian era, at the advanced age of ninety-five years.²

A few years ago, Ḥaidar was practically unknown to the general public as a poet. Wandering faqīrs sometimes sang fragments of his mystical verse in the streets, but no attention was paid to it, as people are not accustomed to pay heed to what the faqīrs sing or recite. In 1898, Malik Fazal Din of Lahore was so greatly impressed on hearing a poem of 'Alī Ḥaidar that he decided to collect all the poetry that 'Alī Ḥaidar had written and publish it for the benefit of the public. He acted on his decision, and with much labour succeeded in collecting most of the poems from the kavvālīs, and also from a descendant of the poet named Ḥazrat Faqīr Ghulām Mirã of Kāziā who furnished him with a copy of the original manuscript.³ This collection the Malik named Mukammal Majmū'a Abyāt 'Alī Ḥaidar, and published it soon after it was readv.⁴

The descendants of 'Alī Haidar could not furnish much information on the life and literary career of the poet. Perhaps they themselves did not know more about their

3 See Majmū'a Abyāt 'Alī Ḥaidar, Introduction, p. 2.

See Majmū'a Abyāt 'Alī Ḥaidar, Introduction, p. 3.

⁴ It can be procured from Allāh Vāle kī Kaumī dukān, Kashmiri Bazar, Lahore. For the sake of convenience we will refer to this collection as M.M. 'Alī Haidar.

illustrious ancestor. In the absence of his life-history, we should have turned to his poetry for information, but unfortunately that too has proved of little help. Incidentally 'Alī Haidar says that he was not a saiyid, which his descendants proclaim him to be, and also gives the name of his pir or murshid. Haidar states:

Mim mai kuttā ban āl rasūl najīb dā pāhru hā ghar bār utte uppar aggo oh andheri mai hondia ais darbar utte nām tarīk dā bhī khādim sahibā dī pucckār utte par aihle ulum di izat rakhan väzib hai sansār utte.2

 $M\bar{i}m: I$ am a dog of the $\bar{a}l$ of the exalted Prophet and keep watch on their house; I pass as a storm 3 over and above this court.4 I am a slave even of their name and also of the kindness of these gentlemen (i.e. saiyids), but it is right to maintain the honour of the learned in the world.

Had 'Alī Haidar been a saivid he would not have called himself a dog of the saiyids' door, but would have claimed a place of equal honour. The above, therefore, removes all doubt and establishes the fact that Haidar was an Indian and not one of the foreign saivids.

From the above quotation we can also conclude that he was troubled by the saivids for his attentions to the learned. Who could these learned people be except some liberal mystics of whom the saivids often disapproved? Haidar seems to have been afraid of the saivids, and that is why he lowered himself before them; but at the same time he maintained in an apologetic manner his own conviction . that to respect the learned befitted a man.

Our poet was a confessed Sūfī and a faithful follower of • Shāh Mohiy-ud-dīn, as:

¹ The descendants and kavvālīs give more legends than valuable information. The legends are not original, but are distorted versions of those relating to great mystics.

² M.M. Alī Haidar, p. 23.

³ Allusion to a Pañjābī superstition according to which a dust storm sweeps away all evil influence and evil spirits from that part of the country over which it passes.

⁴ The Muhammadans respectfully refer to the residence of the saiyids as darbār or court.

Qāf kyā gam khauf asā nữ je shāh muhaiuddīn asādarā ai shāh abdul gādir jīlā dā je lutf āmīn asādarā aj.1

Qāf: what sorrow and fear have we,2 if Shāh Muhiv-ud-dīn is ours and if Shah Abdul Qadir of Jīlan is guardian of our pleasure?

And again:

Alī Haidar kyā parvāh kise dī je Shāh Muhaiuddīn asādarā ai.3

'Alī Haidar, what do we care for any other if Shāh Muhiy-ud-dīn is ours?

Muhiy-ud-din or Abdul Qādir Jīlānī, who, as we know. was born in Jīlān in the year A.H. 471 (A.D. 1078) 4 was famous for his learning. He was the founder of the Qadiri order of Sūfīs 5 and has always had innumerable followers all over the Panjab. Haidar, as is clear from the above, was a Qādirī, but who his pīr was we do not know.

The style of 'Alī Haidar is very ornamental. No mystic Pañjābī poet, with the exception of Bullhe Shāh and Hāshim, has surpassed Haidar in poetic flow and fecundity of vocabulary. His verse, being ornate, abounds in alankāras, notably in vrituānuprāsa, 6 as:

Shīn sharāb de mast raihan, kī nain taīde matt vālare nī, surkh sufaid siyāh do banālare bāj kajjal aīvē kālare nī.7

Here shin, sharab, surkh, safaid, and ni at the end of each line form a graceful vrityānuprāsa.

'Haidar has shown his command of samak 8 in his - Qissā Hīr va Rājha. Each short poem is full of foreign phrases and words, but they are so well welded into his

1 M.M. 'Alī Haidar, p. 23.
2 'We' is here employed in place of the first person singular.

3 M.M. Ali Haidar, p. 23. 4 Beale, An Oriental Biographical Dictionary, p. 5.

Rose, Glossary, Vol. I, p. 538.
We have named this figure of speech according to the Sanskrit system because Pañjābī poetry is entirely Indian as regards grammar, verse technique, etc.

7 M.M. 'Ali Haidar, p. 2.

8 Samak is a figure of speech. If in a poem in a certain language words and phrases of other languages are inserted by the poet and these insertions do not look odd or strange then it is called samak. See Alankar Manjūṣā, pp. 22-3.

poetry that they do not give the reader the impression of being foreign. Here is an example:

Jān bacā ke bājhō cāke, rakhī kyū kar hoī mā Yū rag masiva al māhbūb rehā gair nā koī mā dil vicc āklihe vekkh tamāshā hai je utthe dhoī mā man ho magnātis haidar, use dī khicc rakhioī mā.¹

In the above poem yā rag masiva al māhbūb and man ho maqnūtis, two Arabic sayings,² are put in as if they were in Pañjābī.

Speaking of the style of Ḥaidar, a living poet ⁸ in both Urdū and Pañjābī once said: 'His style resembles that of Habīb Qaānī so far as the arrangement of words and beauty of language is concerned, but for his descriptions and expressions he resembles Hāfiz.' ⁴

'Alī Ḥaidar's style no doubt charms his reader by its grace and beauty. He also excelled in subtle poetic conceit. We give below a specimen in which, desirous of showing the superiority of his own religion over the faith of the Hindus, he very tactfully makes Hīr speak for himself.

Alif eh bāman 5 bhaire bhaṭth paye kūrā rāh batāunde ne so phiṭte mữh ohnā kāfarā dā sabh kūro kūr kamāude ne cūcak de ghar kheriā de aih nitt vicāre aude ne 'netarsunetarnetar 'sunnī de gin gin gaṇḍhī pāūde ne maī guṇ māre ohnā de sir mālā turt puāūde ne nāl dumbal channī lā phuāre māpyo calāūde ne kih sharm hayā ohnā kāfarā nữ jo khair duāre mannāūde ne narak dī bhāh maīḍī nāhì ahi eh apaṇe hatthī lāūde ne 'akkhi dekh tijjan nāhì eh kāfar aīnī hāūde ne je murde nữ dukkh sukkh nāhī kyữ haḍḍīā gaṅgā pāūde ne eh jañju gal ne janj kheriā dī maī haidar mūl nā bhāūde ne.6

Alif: these bad Brahmans are in the oven (i.e. fire) for they tell the false path (i.e. Hinduism), therefore shame on those

¹ M.M. 'Alī Haidar, p. 78.

² These sayings are inserted in their corrupted form.

³ Maulānā Waqār (N.A.) Ambālvī, who is known as one of the best living poets of Urdū. He sometimes writes in Pañjābī also and, being a Pañjābī and a scholar of Persian, his judgements command our respect.

⁴ Bābā Buddh Singh also compares Haidar with Hāfiz of Shirāz,

see *Hans Cog*, p. 181.
5 In Pañjābī Brahmans are called Bāmens.

⁶ M.M. Ali Haidar, p. 26.

heathens who all follow the false. Into the house of cūcak and the kherās 2 these wretches (Brahmans) always come. Saving netarsunetarnetar 8 and calculating, they tie the knot.4 When I marred their qualities (i.e. when I refused to obey them by loving Rājhā) then they ordered the garland (i.e. of marriage with Saida) to be put on my head. Putting a cup to the abscess, the parents start the stream 5 (i.e. obeying the order of the Brahmans parents bleed my heart by giving me in marriage to Saida). What modesty and shame have these heathens, who in the temple beg for safety? This is not the fire of my hell (Muhammadan hell), they have lit it themselves.6 Seeing this (fire) they are not convinced but keep on boasting (i.e. they still praise their religion). If a corpse experiences no pain or pleasure then why do they put the bones into the Ganges? This sacred thread round the neck is like the marriage procession of the kherās; Haidar, I do not like it at all.

Haidar paints well his disgust of the worldly possessions which we have to leave after death. He calls them false and states that the only true possession is God with his prophet and his friends.

Kūrā ghorā kūrā jorā kūrū shau asvār kūre bāshe kūre shikare kūre mīr shikār kūre hāthī kūre lashkar kūre fauj katār kūre sūhe kūre sālū, kūre sohņe yār kūre jore kūre bere kūre hār shaṅgār kūre kotthe kūre manmit kūr eh sansār haidar ākkhe sabh kujh kūrā saccā hikk kartār dūjā nabī muḥammad saccā sacce us de yār.

¹ Hindu laity who follow the path indicated by the Brahman clergy.

² Cūcak and kherās here represent the Hindu community.

3 The poet, not knowing the Sanskrit text of star calculations which the Brahmans read, gives words that sound like it.

4 Engagement knot between Hir and Saidā, the son of the kherā

-chief, but the poet here means the knot of falsehood or Hinduism.

⁵ Allusion to the Panjābī village treatment of an abscess. A cup is put next to it and the barber then applies the knife. Blood gushes out and falls into the cup. Here the sore heart of Hīr or of the Moman is the abscess: the barber stands for her father and mother, i.e. the Hindu community, the knives for the order of the Brahmans, and the gushing blood or fountain for the reproaches of Hīr or of Moman for their falsehood or Hindu faith.

⁶ The poet says that the Hindus invite the fires of hell by resting

in Hinduism, and so it is not Islām that sends them there.

7 M.M. 'Alī Ḥaidar, p. 58. This poem, it appears, was written after the poet had seen a royal hunting party which included ladies of the royal court.

False is the horse, false is the costume and false is the king rider; false are the hawks, false the falcon and false is the leader of the hunt; false the elephants, false the battalions and false are the armies with swords; false the red, and false the sālūs and false the beautiful friends; false these uniforms, false the boats and false are the toilets; false the houses, false the pleasures and false is this world. Haidar says all is false, kartar alone is true; the second true one is the Prophet Muhammad, and true are his friends.

Haidar's faith in God is well described in this:

Alif etthe otthe asā ās taīḍī ate āsarā taīḍare zor dāī mahī sabh havālṛe taīḍare ne asā khauf nā khaṇḍare cor dāī tū̃i jān savāl javāb sabhō sānu haul nā aukhaṛī gor dāī alī haidar nū̃ sikk taīḍaṛī ai taīḍai bājh nā sāyal hor dāī.⁶

Alif: both here and there you are my hope and your power is my support; all buffaloes 7 are in your charge, so I am not afraid of any wretched thief; 8 you know all prayers and their answers (so) I have no fear of the difficult grave; 'Alī Haidar feels your want, save you he does not seek another.

It will be interesting to give here one of the few poems in which Haidar reproaches his countrymen, the king and the foreign element, then so prominent at the Imperial Court of Delhi, for having allowed the Persians to come into the country and for submitting to their lust for riches: 9

Be bhī zaiḥar nahī jo khā maran kujh sharam nā hindustānīā nū kyā hayā ehnā rājiā nū kujh lajj nahī turāniā nū bhaire bhar bhar devan khajāne fārsiā khurāsānīā nū vice chauniā de vice pāṇī takk badhoje lahū nā vēdeā pāṇiā nū. 10

Be: there is no poison which they (Indians) should eat and (consequently) die, the Indians have no shame; what shame have these kings, what shame have these Turānis? 11 The wretches fill up and give treasuries to the Persians and the

1 Hawks were of great help in hunting, in those days.

² Dresses of red colour worn by women.

 3 $S\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ is a red thick cloth used for making women's veils. This veil is considered to be auspicious.

4 Ladies of the king's harem who accompanied him to the hunt.

Note here the word kartar for God. It is a Hindu name for God, but is mostly employed by the Sikhs.
M.M. Ali Haidar, p. 1.
7 The striving souls.

8 Satanic temptations.

9 This poem describes the invasion of Nadir in A.D. 1739.

10 M.M. 'Alī Ḥaidar, p. 40.

Khurāsānīs; in the cantonments they (i.e. the Persians) have reserved water for themselves, the only water we (Indians) see is blood.

It is evident from this and other such poems that to Haidar his country's distress was unbearable, and he cursed freely the rulers and those in power.

Haidar alone of the Pañjābī Ṣūfī poets played with words. It is on account of this that his thought is weak and often the same idea is differently described. Physical love was his ideal for spiritual love, and he therefore laid great stress on the use of words which naturally imparted a sort of brilliancy to his language. Here is a specimen to illustrate his mastery over words:

Shīn shakar ranjī yār dī maînữ talkh kītā sabh shīr shakar ganj shakar dī shakar vandā je kare rabb shīr shakar rājhā khīr te hir shakar rabb pher kare jlabb shīr shakar jo labbiai lab lab te hāzir piyo payālā shīr shakar haidar gussā pīve tā akkhe pīau mitthā lab shīr shakar.²

Shīn: the anger of my friend is bitter to me; it has made our friendship bitter.³ I will distribute the sugar of Ganj Shakar ⁴ provided God arranges peace; Rājhā is rice and Hīr is sugar. May God soon bring about their union; what we search is present on each lip (i.e. the name of God), drink that cup of friendship; Haidar, if he controls his anger, will say. Drink friendship with the sweet sugar of lips.

Haidar, we believe, was a very good musician. Each line of his verse is full of rhythm and is so beautifully composed that his reader is tempted to sing rather than read or recite it. One specimen will suffice:

Te tāṛiyā lāṇiyā taīḍiā nī, maīnū lāṇiyā kāṇiyā māṇiyā nī hīr jahiā sai goliā gholiā nī, sadake kīttiā taīthō vāṇiā nī caupar mār taroṇ nā pāse, pāse ditiā haḍḍiā sāṇiā nī Ḥaidar kaun khalāṇiā taīthō, asī jitiā bājiā hāṇiā nī.⁵

² M.M. 'Alī Hardar, p. 9.

4 The followers of Ganj Shakar distribute sugar on the fulfilment of

their desires and vows.

5 M.M. 'Alī Ḥardar, p. 1.

¹ People of Khurasan, a province of Persia.

³ Shir in Persian means milk and shakar is sugar. Here the word shir-shakar has many meanings, as: sweet milk; union with the beloved; God; peace; and also sweetness of lips.

At the end of each poem of his siharfis, Haidar wrote a sort of $ah\bar{a}u$ to indicate the musical refrain. Here is this chorus:

Anban inbin unbun thi, ikk samajh asādarī ramaz miā.1

Haidar used Multānī, which is a sweet dialect of Pañjābī, and became more so when the poet played with it. The few poens which have come down to us from the Hīr of Haidar show that he was an Arabic scholar and a competent hufiz. Had it been complete it would be a document to prove how the Ṣūfīs understood the Qurān and the hadīs. Their interpretations are different, as Ḥaidar's Hīr differs from those of other Mussulmans. Still what is left of the Hīr is very interesting and pleasing. Before we close this account we will let Ḥaidar speak briefly for himself.

Khe khalak khudā dī ilam parhdī sānū ikkā mutāliā yār dā ai jihne khol ke ishk kitāb ditthī sige saraf de sabh visār dā ai jinhe yār de nām dā sabak parhyā etthe jāe nā sabar karār dā ai haidar mullānū fikar namāz dā ai ehnā āshka talab didār dā ai.²

Khe: the creatures of God study knowledge, but we have only the study of the Beloved; he who has opened and looked in the book of love is ready to spend all; he who has read the lesson of the beloved's name should not come here, for here is only peace and contentment; Haidar, the priest has to think of prayers, but these lovers desire only the manifestation (of the Beloved).

Be, be di teg na dass mullā oh alif sidhā kham ghat āyā ohā yār kalokarī rāt vālā hun bhes vatā ke vatt āyā sohņā mīm di cadar paihn ke jī kchā julfā de ghungat ghat āyā alī haidar ohā yār paiyārā hun ahmad ban ke vatt āyā.

Be: O priest, do not show me the curved sword of be 4 because this is the straight alif 5 that has come back bent; the friend of last night changing his garb has come again; the handsome friend wearing the shawl of mīm 6 and veiled in his locks has

¹ M.M. 'Alī Haidar, p. 1.

² ibid., p. 72.

³ ibid., p. 72.

⁴ Be is unpleasant to Sufis who prefer only alif, so Haidar compares the second letter of the alphabet to a sword.

⁵ Alif in Şūfī language stands for God or Reality.

⁶ Mim to the mystics signifies Muhammad.

returned: 'Alī Haidar, that friend beloved now has come agai as Ahmad.1

Lām lok nasihatā de thakke sohne yār tõ mukkh nā morsā mai tore māure peure kadd choran jānī yār piche ghar chorsā maī maī tā bele vassā hardam māhi vāle matti dedeā ni khūhe horsā

alī haidar ne akkhiā lāīvā kite kaul nữ mūl nā torsā maī.2

Lām: the people are tired giving me good counsels, but I will not turn my face from the handsome friend; if mother and father turn me out, for my beloved I will leave the house: I will ever live in the jangal of my beloved,³ and will throw into a well those who give me good advice.⁴ 'Alī Ḥaidar, our eyes have met 5 and I will never break my word.

1 Ahmad is the real name of Muhammad, the Arabian prophet.

² M.M. 'Alī Haidar, p. 25.

3 The Beloved, Rajha, is poor and lives in a jangal, i.e. in the open

country away from towns.

4 'The impertinent counsel-givers will be thrown into a well.' This is a Panjabi expression meaning that no heed will be paid to what the unsought-for advisers say.

5 After the eves have met. i.e. after love has been declared.

CHAPTER VI

FARD FAQÎR

(c. A.D. 1720-90)

FARD FAQÎR is generally known as Fard Fakîr. No biography of the Şūfīs or the poets known to us contains any description of his life and beliefs. Oral tradition is also silent. It may be that in some secluded village of the Gujrat district there is some tradition relating to this Faqīr, but our efforts have not had any success. Fard, nevertheless, gives enough information about himself in his works. Though he does not give the date of his birth, yet he tells us in his Kasab-Nāmā Bāfindgān that he lived in the eighteenth century A.D.

Yārā sai trai saṭth barsā san nabī dā āyā eh rasālā kāmil hoyā hukam dhurāõ āyā.¹

The eleven hundred and sixty-third year of the Prophet's era has come,² and this journal is complete according to the order that had come from the start.³

This shows that when he finished the book in A.H. 1163 (A.D. 1751) he would already have been a man of thirty or forty years. We do not mean to say that a man below this age was not allowed to write a book, but because as he had disciples when he wrote the Kasab-Nāmā, and the Kasab-Nāmā was written at the request of a weaver disciple. In all probability he had attained that age. A faqīr cannot have disciples at an early age, because almost all his youth passes in study and in discipleship. We can therefore safely say that Fard Faqīr lived, preached, and died between the years A.D. 1720 and 1790.

<sup>Daryā-e-Ma'rrfat, p. 13.
From eternity or God.</sup>

<sup>Has begun.
Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 6.</sup>

He was a resident of the Cujrat district in the Panjāb as is stated at the end of his $B\bar{a}_1\bar{a}_-M\bar{a}h^{-1}$ Whether he was an inhabitant of Gujrat town or of some village in the district of Gujrat, it is impossible to say.

He was a Ṣūfī, as he reproaches those who are not true to their Ṣūfī professions:

Bāhir bānā sūfiā andar dagā kamāy.2

Outside the guise of a Sūfī and inside they earn deceit.

And again

Mīm mīmō mull vakāūdī ajj fakīrī hatt ikk paise dī unn lai gall nū selī vatt gerī raṅg lai kapare khol sire de vāl fardā lekhā laisiā rabb kādir jul jalāl 3

Mim: the faqīrī is sold today in the shop; buying one pice worth of wool (thread) the selī 4 is twisted round the neck; with gerī 5 the clothes are coloured and the hair is let loose, Fard, the mighty radiant and glorious God will take account.6

His title Faqīr also indicates that he was a *dervish*. Fard was a Ṣūfī of the popular school. From his own account it is clear that he was a $p\bar{v}r$ of the lower classes such as the weavers and the barbers ⁷ His imagination, his low and vulgar thought, so conspicuously shown in his $Roshan\ dil$, his lack of personality and his strong fanatic cenvictions so clearly manifest in his poetry, support our view.

The times during which he was born and lived and the political circumstances of the province were detrimental to the growth and development of art. Since the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 the Panjāb had been a stage for dis-

7 Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 6.

 $^{^1}$ Daryā-e-Ma'rıfat, p. 24. 2 ibid., p. 1. 3 ibid., p. 3. 4 Sēlī is a twisted woollen thread tied round the neck of the Sūfīs, especially the popular ones, to indicate that they are mystics. The Sūfīs in India do not put on woollen clothes. Selī is a remnant of the woollen garment.

⁵ Soft red stone, used as a dye.
6 Explanation for hypocrisy practised to deceive fellow human beings.

sensions, and from 1739 to 1770 it witnessed no peace at The invasion of Nādir in 1739, the successive raids of Ahmad Shāh Durrānī, the first of which began in 1748, and the desire of the provincial ruler to become independent of both Durrānī and the weak Mughal court at Delhi, all contributed to create trouble and confusion. This was an opportunity for the suppressed Sikhs, who began to assert themselves by devastating the country and thereby creating trouble for the rulers. The Marathas for a short while entered the arena and were proclaimed masters. Marāthā sovereignty dissatisfied Durrānī, who returned once more. The Marāthās retired in 1761, but henceforward there was a constant state of war between the nominees of the Afghan and the rising Sikhs. It was only in 1770 that the Sikhs finally deposed and repulsed the Afghan officials and occupied the Pañjāb. It took them some years to establish a strong government in the province that had long been a prey to the ambitions of different claimants. Poetry naturally could not flourish in such a state of affairs. Nor could there exist amicable feelings and tolerance between members of the various communities, certainly not in the followings of the popular pirs. These pirs, moreover, were often utilized to preach the cause of one or the other party. To protect themselves against the ever hostile ulamā and to save themselves from the fury of the powerful they had to adhere to the cause of one of the contending parties. Their popular Sūfīism, therefore, often turned into Yet, in all fairness to them, it should be fanaticism. stated here that in their private lives they tried to please and respect, as far as possible, the beliefs of people belonging to different religions. In public they preached the beliefs of the political party to which they gave allegiance. Fard was a popular Sūfī, the outcome of these circumstances, and therefore we can easily forgive him his fanaticism and other shortcomings.

Fard seems to have had a good knowledge of Arabic. His Roshan Dil abounds in words and quotations from the Qur'ān. About his knowledge of Persian we do not know anything except that in his Kasab-Nāmā Bāfindgān he says:

Nasar fārsī nu chaḍd asā ne hindī nazam banāyā.1

Abandoning Persian prose we have made 2 it in Hindi poetry.

To him Pañjābī was Hindī as it was the language of the Hindustānīs or the Indians. Whatever the name he gave to his mother-tongue, the above indicates that he was accustomed to write in Persian prose. His Pañjābī verse is more or less rustic in expression but lacks that sweet flavour which rustics impart to it. It is all a sort of baīt which is abrupt in itself. Its flow is not smooth; it is, however, powerful and emphatic.

The following are his works:

Bārā-Māh or bārā-māsā. MSS. of this are very numerous and are found in different libraries and with private individuals. They differ slightly in minor details. These differences, occurring mostly in words, are due to the fact that the copyist was never the same person. Apart from this, they are all the same. There is one such MS. in the India Office Library. Fard's Bārā-Māh has many a time been published in the Pañjāb.

Sīharfī. This is very popular with orthodox Mussulmans and the lower orders of the community and has had various editions.

Kasab- $N\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ $B\bar{a}findg\bar{a}n$, a treatise on the profession of weavers, was completed in 1751. This describes weaving

Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 5.
 Have written it.

³ Mussulman writers of the Panjāb often called Panjābi, Hindi. It might be that originally it was called Hindi but later on when the language of Delhi and of the United Provinces was called Hindi it came to be termed Panjābi. Muslim tradition, however, continued to call it Hindi.

⁴ We have not seen anything by him in this language.

⁵ MS. D, Fol. 7.

on spiritual lines, praises the weavers, and condemns the rulers who tyrannized over them. It was published two or three times at various places in the Panjah. Of all the editions, the one published by the Muslim Steam Press, Lahore, and also containing the other two works, the $B\bar{a}r\bar{a}-M\bar{a}h$ and $S\bar{i}harf\bar{i}$ and entitled $Dary\bar{a}-e-Ma'rifat^{-1}$ is the best. We have therefore utilized this for quotations.

Roshan Dil is a manual of instruction on dogmatic religious duties. The work is very popular and has been frequently published. There are many MSS. Two are in the India Office Library.2 In one of these the author is said to be Fard Faqīr but in the second copy the scribe Murād 'Alī in the appended verses ascribes the authorship to Maulvī Abd-Allāh. After a careful study of Roshan Dil we come to the conclusion that it could not have been written by an open-minded Sūfī. We believe that, under stress of circumstances, Fard was either forced to claim authorship of this work or was made to write it. There are two reasons for this belief.

First, that his name rarely occurs in it while in his Sīharfī, Bārā-Māh, and Kasab-Nāmā Bā findaān his name occurs at the end of every few lines.

Second, that in one place in the Roshan Dil he says:

Maī dardā gall nā ākkhdā mat māran ulmāh. ehse kāran rakkhiā fardā bhed chupā.3

For fear I do not say the matter, lest the 'ulamā should kill me, therefore Fard (says) I have kept the secret concealed.

Roshan Dil is a great favourite of the 'ulamā, so the secret must have been considered a great heresy, punishable by death, which the unfortunate poet could not freely express.

These two facts therefore make us believe that either he was forced to write the book, or at least some parts of it.

Alläh Väle ki Kaumi Dukän, Kashmiri Bazar, Lahore.
 MS. D, Fol. 44 and Fol. 77.
 Roshan 8 Roshan Dil, p. 23.

or he was compelled to accept its authorship. Of all the printed editions of the *Roshan Dil* the one published by Abdul Rashid is the only well-printed edition; ¹ we have referred to it in these pages.

In his Kasab-Nāmā Bāfindgān Fard tells us how the rulers at that time ill-treated the artisans. They exacted forced labour whenever it pleased them, without considering how the arts, crafts, and industry, and consequently the poor artisans, would suffer.

Hākim ho ke bain galīce bauhtā zulam kamāde mehantiā nū kamī ākkhan khūn uhnā dā khāde phar vagārī lai lai jāvan khauf khudā nāhī fard fakīrā dard mandā diā ikk din pausan āhī kāsabiā nū maihar mukaddam jabran cattī pāde bhār garibā dā sir laike āpe dozakh jāde.²

Being rulers they sit on carpets ³ and practise tyranny; artisans they call menials and drink their blood. By force they take them to work without fearing God, Fard, the sufferer's sighs will fall on them one day.⁴ The artisans have (to pay) the first tax and they have to suffer this loss. Carrying the load of the poor on their heads ⁵ they (rulers) themselves go to hell.

Fard is very bitter against the Hindu avatāras and goes out of his way to curse them:

Jehre ism khudaye de, likkhe andar nass uhe nā bhulāvanā, rām kishan sir bhass.⁶

Those names of God which are written in the veins, do not forget those, and ashes be on the head of Rama and Krishna.

A new convert to Islām is ever welcome among the Muhammadans, but he is looked down upon by those Muslims who uphold their pure Islāmic origin, for his non-Islāmic descent. Considering him to be by origin a descendant of the kāfirs, they sometimes give him the same treatment

Feroz Printing Works, Lahore.
 Daryā-e-Mairifat, p. 9.
 Galīca is a Persian carpet.

⁴ The sighs will invite evil for the rulers.

⁵ Accompanied by the curse of the poor. 6 Roshan Dil, p. 10.
7 The ordinary simple-minded Panjābī Muslim faqīrs of all denominations believe that the Islāmic names of God, being true, are written inside the veins of man and so he should repeat them.

as is given to non-Muslims. Fard, however, does not approve of this and advises them to be more benignant:

Jo koī hindu āyke hove musalmān māl na ghannan os dā nā kar burā gumān kaid nā karna katal bhī ādā os imān bājhō 'nujat sharā de diyo nā āzār.²

Any Hindu who comes and becomes a Mussulman, do not take away his wealth nor harbour evil thought, do not imprison or slay him, for faith has brought him (to Islām); without the permit of the sharī'at do not give (him) trouble.

In spite of his orthodox beliefs, Fard could not help believing in the *karmas* and he often enjoins upon his followers the duty of doing good actions. One specimen will suffice here:

> Ghain garūrat nā karo, rovo dhāi mār bājhō amalā caṅgiā kaun laṅghāsī pār chaḍḍ duniā de vāhde kaul khudā dā bhāl fardā lekhā laisiā rabb kādir jul jalāl.³

Ghain: do not bear pride but wail bitterly instead, (because) without good actions who will see you across? Abandoning the prosperity of the world understand the word of God. Fard, the mighty, radiant and glorious God will take account.

In the following he speaks like a free Ṣūfī:

Sīn sunāyê khalak nữ kar kar masale roz lokā de nasīhatā andar tere cor kī hoya je laddiā gadhā kitābā nāl fardā lekhā laisia rabb kādir jul jalāl.⁵

Sin: you preach to the public, treating problem after problem each day, (you) give instructions to others and inside you is the thief; what avails it if the ass is loaded with books? Fard, the mighty, radiant and glorious God will take account.

¹ Major Abbott puts this Muslim sentiment clearly: 'All converts to Islam are ashamed of that page which preceded their conversion. They cannot bear to think themselves the sons of Kawfurs (infidels). As the strongest expression of scorn is not "you dog" but "you son or grandson or great-grandson of a dog", so to be a remote grandson of a Kawfur is more terrible to an Asiatic than to be merely himself a Kawfur.' (Journal of the Asiatic Society, Vol. XXIII, 1854.)

Roshan Dil, p. 8.
 Wailing for not having acted rightly.
 Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 3.
 Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 2.

⁶ The problems of religion from the sacred texts.

7 Inside you is mischief installed.

Here Fard Faqīr demonstrates his anxiety to hide his knowledge of things:

Zāl zikar khudāy dā nakar zāhir khalak dikhāy andar kar tun bundgī bāhar pardā pāy mūl nā vecī ilam nū nā kar kisse savāl fardā lekhā laisia rabb kādir jul jalāl.¹

Zāl: discuss not God openly showing to the public; inside (in the heart) you should pray to Him and outside put the veil; 2 do not in the least sell your knowledge nor question any person. Fard, the mighty, radiant and glorious God will take account.

Such pious ideas of the poet are strikingly in harmony with his repeated orthodox injunctions.

With all his prejudices against the *kāfirs* (Hindus), Fard did not hesitate to state the efficacy of the *paṇḍits*' knowledge with regard to the future, as:

Maī vēdī pās parosiā nit pucchdī paņdit joshiā.3

I see near ones and neighbours and ever consult the *pandits* and *jotashīs* (astrologers).

Again:

Rahī dhūnd kitābā phol ke sabh pothī paṇḍat khol ke.4

I am engaged in search, turning over the books and opening all the pothis 5 of the pandits.

The following verse depicts well how the very popular Sūfī imagines his union with the Beloved:

Ajj hovan lef nihāliā kol niyāmat bhariā thāliā bauhnāl payāre khāviye, hor mushk gulāb lagāviye.

Today (there) should be covers and mattresses ⁷ and plates full of rare preparations; sitting with the Beloved should I eat (them) and should apply the scent of roses.

1 Daryā-e-Ma'rifat, p. 2.

² The veil of orthodox beliefs which were established at the time.

⁸ Daryā-e-Marifat, p. 10.

4 ibid., p. 18.

⁵ The books of the Hindus in nāgarī script are generally called pothīs.

⁶ Daryā-e-Ma'rıfat, p. 22.

7 Spread on the bed and elsewhere in honour of the Beloved.

CHAPTER VII

HASHIM SHAH

(A.D. 1753-1823)

Hāshim was only a Ṣūfī poet and had no claim to sainthood or faqīrī. The biographies of the Sūfī saints and fagīrs therefore do not mention him at all. There are many oral traditions rich in information, but the only written account that we have found is a short sketch by Bābā Buddh Singh in his Bambīhā Bol.1 Unfortunately, this sketch, as we shall see later, is in no way better than the oral traditions. The only reliable sources of information were the narratives of some elders whose fathers or grandfathers had known the poet. After a great deal of correspondence one of my friends collected narratives from some old gentlemen of Jagdeo village, the birth-place of Häshim. The following is the sum-total of these narratives relating to the poet:

He was the son of Kāsim Shāh, a carpenter of Jagdeo village in Amritsar district and was born in A.H. 1166 (A.D. 1753). He possessed a great love for knowledge and composed verse in his youth. God had conferred on him the gift of writing, and it was on this account that he surpassed the poets of his time. The Sikh chiefs esteemed him. He died at the age of seventy.2

The above accords with the traditional accounts. save in the stories about Hāshim's friendship with Ranjīt Singh and about the patronage from him which the poet is said to have enjoyed. But before proceeding any further

² We are indebted to a few of our family friends for having procured

us this information.

 $^{^1}$ Pp. 162–4. Mohan Singh, in his recently published $History\ of\ Pa\bar{n}j\bar{a}b\bar{t}\ Literature\ (p.\ 72)$ gives a few lines on the life of Häshim, but his information seems to have been taken from $Bamb\bar{t}h\bar{a}\ Bol$ and does not show any research on his own part.

let us state here that all sources of information agree that Hāshim was born in A.D. 1753 and died at the age of seventy. i.e. allotting him a life of seventy Panjabi years, he died in A.D. 1823.

Was Hāshim a court-poet of Mahārājā Ranjīt Singh? Bābā Buddh Singh calls him rāj-kavī,2 and Dr Mohan Singh also speaks in the same strain.³ According to history Ranjīt Singh assumed the title of Mahārājā in 1801, some time after he had occupied Lahore. For the next ten years he was whole-heartedly engaged in consolidating the different constituents of the province and had little time for poets and poetry. It was only after the year 1810 that he began to evince interest in arts other than the art of warfare. If then he ever made Hāshim his court-poet it could have been only after A.D. 1810 when the poet was nearing his fifty-eighth year. But no history of the Mahārājā written before or after A.D. 1810 speaks of the poet.

Our knowledge and study of the popular and oral narratives does not permit us to call Hāshim a court-poet of Mahārājā Ranjīt Singh. What we believe is that Hāshim had the patronage of Ranjīt Singh when he was a territorial chief, and this patronage continued unofficially in the shape of small gifts of little importance, even after the latter had become Mahārājā of the Panjāb.

Bābā Buddh Singh makes another statement regarding Hāshim's position at the Sikh court and his intimacy with Ranjīt Singh. He says that the poet recited his Sassi-Punnū to the Mahārājā at a dusaihrā darbār, and this so won him that ruler's love that he was called in spare moments to recite his verses to the Mahārājā.4 In all the well-known histories and popular narratives of the private and public life of Ranjīt Singh no reference is made to

The Islāmic year is shorter than the Christian year which is as long as the Pañjābī year. In the Pañjāb, all communities, save some religious heads of the Mussulmans, follow the Pañjābī calendar.
 Bambīhā Bol, p. 162.
 A History of Panjābī Literature, p. 72.
 Bambīhā Bol, p. 162.

Hā-him.¹ Therefore we doubt if 'e ever lived in Lahore, or saw the Mahārājā as frequently as the Bābā -tates he did.

Dābā Buddh Singh makes still another assertion,² describing Hāsnim as an intimate friend of Faqīr 'Azīz-ud-dīn.³ A direct descendant of the Faqīr ⁴ whom we approached for information concerning the poet told us that his ancestor never spoke of Hāshim and that neither in his vast correspondence nor in his library was there anything relating to the poet. He doubted very much the correctness of the Bābā's statements.

Hāshim, too, in his poetry does not mention Raṇjīt Singh or 'Azīz-ud-dīn, the minister. Had he been in the service of the Mahārājā he would have told us so.⁵ On the other hand he speaks against the kings of his times, as:

Kaih sun hal hakīkat hāshim hundiā bādshāhā dī julmõ kūk gaye asmānī dukkhiā ros dilā dī ādmiā dī sūrat diss dī rākas ādam khore jālam cor palīt zanāhī khauf khudāō kore bas hun hor nā kaih kujh hāshim jīō rabb rakkhe raihnā eh gall nāhī fakīrā lāyak burā kise dā kaihnā.

Say and hear the real description, Hāshim, of the kings of the present time; through their tyranny the screams of sorrowful angry hearts have reached the heavens. Their faces are like those of men, but they are monsters, maneaters, cruel thieves and impure adulterers, unmindful of God's terror. Enough! now say nothing more, Hāshim; live as God keeps. It behoves not the faqīrs to speak ill of any one.

life see Sir Lepel Griffin's Ranjīt Singh.

4 Faqīr Jalāl-ud-dīn Sāhib of Lahore.

¹ Ranjīt Singh's attachment for 'Azīz-ud-dīn who was his companyin spare moments, his affection and childish talks with Hīrā Singh and other young boys, and his voluptuous love for dancing and singing are all recorded in detail; but there is nothing about Hāshim.

² Bambīhā Bol, p. 163.
3 He was one of the ministers of the Mahārājā; for an account of his

⁵ It was customary to speak of one's patron. The poet Qādir Yār, a contemporary of Hāshim, tells us of his patron Harī Singh and his king, Ranjīt Singh. He even mentions the gift of land which he received for composing his Pūran Bhagat.

⁶ Shīrī Farhād, p. 4. Printed at Victoria Press, Lahore.
7 Hāshim lived between A.D. 1753 and 1823-4, and this description may be of the Sikh Misaldārs who became masters of the Pañjāb from A.D. 1769.

We therefore come to the conclusion that Hāshim was neither a rāj-kavi nor on intimate terms with Fagīr 'Azīz-ud-dīn, and that if ever he received consideration from Ranjīt Singh and his minister, it was during his misaldārī before A.D. 1801.

Hāshim, it appears, had a good education and must have studied Persian and Arabic. His knowledge of these languages, in the words of Sir Richard Temple, 'is apparent in his fondness for interlarding (and thereby spoiling) his poetry with Arabic and Persian words and phrases '.1

The poet is absolutely silent about himself, and we have to remain content with the little we know. One thing that we gather from Hāshim's verse is that he was an earnest seeker after God and was persuaded of the truth of Sūfī doctrines by the condition of the world around him.2

Who was Hāshim's pīr and when he met him is unknown, though we read a few verses in his praise. Probably he had recognized and praised as $p\bar{i}r$ the person who had created his interest in Sūfī doctrines.

In Hāshim's poems there is no exposition of any Sūfī doctrines or allusion to his adherence to any particular sect. He had taken Süfiism as an established belief. His reader is supposed to know it or his poems remain somewhat unintelligible or are mistaken for romantic or pious poetry. The poet, however, refers frequently to Mansur, and sometimes to others like Shamsī Tabrīz.

His prosody is Panjābī throughout, though as stated above his vocabulary abounds in Hindi, Persian, and Arabic words. These words often occur in their original form, but sometimes also in their corrupted Panjabī versions.

^{1 &#}x27;Muhammadan belief in Hindu superstition', Indian Antiquary,

^{1881,} p. 372.

2 It is a remarkable fact that all Sūfis of the philosophic school who lived between 1740 and 1850 were pessimistic regarding material welfare and very anxious about the welfare of the soul. This pessimism, it seems, was a natural consequence of constant warfare in the land.

He wrote the following books: Qissā Shīrī Farhād, Qissā Sohņī Mahīvāl, Qissā Sassī-Punnū, Gyān Prakāsh, and Dohre.¹

Of these, Sassī-Punnū and Dohre are his two masterpieces and have been issued in many editions in various scripts of the Pañjāb. Sassī-Punnū was even transliterated in Roman characters with a résumé in English by Sir Richard Temple.²

Gyān Prakāsh is still wholly unknown to the public. But Lālā Kālī Das, a living Pañjābī poet of Gujranwala, asserts that he possessed a manuscript copy of this work of Hāshim, which unfortunately was lost by a friend to whom he had lent it for study. According to him the work was purely philosophic and was in Hindī. We hope to trace it some day. The Sohṇā of Hāshim is not very popular. This is the only work of which a manuscript has been found.³

 $Sh\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ Farhād has also gained fame for the poet, but in popularity it stands nowhere near $Sass\bar{\imath}$ -Punn \bar{u} .

Sassī-Punnū and Dohre are his best works as regards sentiments and terseness and it is for this reason that they have attained unrivalled popularity. Before we enter on the study of these two works, it would be only fair to say that there is no visible inequality in workmanship in the different works of Hāshim. The only visible difference is in thought. We presume that he wrote his best works at an advanced stage when his thought had matured.

Sassī-Punnū

This work is avowedly based on the Sindhī story of Sassī. The subject had been treated before by two Pañjābī poets.⁴

² Roman Urdu Journal, 1881.

 $^{^1}$ Bābā Buddh Singh says that he also wrote $Lail\bar{a}$ $Majn\bar{u},$ but we have not come across it.

³ Pañjāb University Library, No. 914.
⁴ Hāshim Barkhurdār and (hulām Rasūl.

Hāshim's work, however, differs from that of his predecessors, the main difference being that his central idea was to describe the true love of the hero and heroine. and so, unlike them, he very cleverly skimmed over local customs, class prejudices, and marriage, with its accompanying ceremonies. He concentrated all his thought on the description of their love and succeeded in relating it in a most impressive manner.

The work begins with the customary few lines in praise of God. These are followed by a couplet which explains the object of his writing this verse:

> Sun sun baut sassī diā bātā kāmil ishk kamāyā hāshim jo satt thì att kītā vahim utte vall āyā.1

Hearing many tales about Sassi and the love she fulfilled. what was true and was truly upheld, Hāshim became possessed with the idea (of writing the story).

The poet then opens the story by telling that Adam. the Jām² of Bhambor, was a great and just ruler. bestowed rich gifts on the poor and the holy for having a child. After long years a daughter was born to his wife and was called Sassī. Astrologers prophesied that:

> Kāmil ishk sassī tan hosī jab hogu juān siānī mast bihosh thalā vice marsī dard firāk ranjhānī.3

Perfect love will come into Sassi's body when she grows and attains youth. Enamoured, fainting in the desert, she will die of the sorrow of separation's pain.

And then

Hāshim dāg lage us kul nữ jagg vice hog kahānī.4

Hāshim, (thereby) to her family will disgrace come (when) it (her love) becomes a public story.

Qissā Sassī-Punnū, p. 1.
 Jām is an equivalent of Rājā or Nawāb.
 Qissā Sassī-Punnū, p. 4.

⁴ ibid.

The parents, anxious to save the family 1 from this predicted disgrace, suppressed their sentiments and, tying a talisman round her neck, put Sassi in a wooden chest. inlaid with precious stones and filled with treasure, and launched it into the river. A washerman, Atta by name, wa, working on the bank of this river. He saw the box, and jumping into the stream he caught it and brought it ashore. Surprised at the sight of such a treasure, he opened it and was even more surprised to find it contained a baby girl. He took her to his wife and they brought her up as their own child. Sassī grew up into a beautiful woman. Many a washerman suitor came to wed her but she refused them all. This enraged a relative of Atta who presented himself at the Jām's court and told him that Attā's daughter was worthy of him.2 The Jam sent a messenger to bring Sassī to his court. Sassī did not go but handed him the talisman. When the Jam saw it, he and his wife were deeply touched. They invited Sassī to come back, but she proudly refused to do so.

Now it so happened that a rich man of Bhambor had made lovely gardens in which he hung portraits of kings and princes. Sassī along with her friends visited these gardens. Seeing the portrait of the prince of Kecem she became enamoured of him. She returned home sad and could neither sleep nor rest. She then wrote to her royal father to grant her lands at the spot where the Bilocis. entered Bhambor and to give orders that none should pass without seeing her first. The request was granted and shebuilt a garden house there. It so happened that the Biloc merchants who came to trade from Kecem paid their

¹ In the Sindhī story Sassī was a Brahmin's daughter. On her birth the astrologers foretold that she would marry a Muhammadan and would die in the desert pining for his love. This version appears to be more comprehensible, but Hāshim being a Ṣūfī could not attach importance to trifling religious differences on the path of love.

² The Jām would have been a very old man and it is for this reason that the enraged relative, to revenge himself, wanted him to marry the youthful Sassī.

customary respects to Sassī. On inquiry she was told that they knew Punnu, the Kecem prince who was their brother.1 Thereupon she imprisoned them all, letting two go back to their country. These two mounted their camels and reached the court of 'Alī the father of Punnū in all haste They told him all that had happened and demanded help. 'Punnū will not go whatever may happen to the merchants,' said the Chief. Disappointed, the merchants waited on Punnu and related to him the beauty of Sassī and the interest she took in him. This made him curious and he left for Bhambor with his men. Reaching the city one night he entered Sassi's gardens. Ordering the camels to graze in the gardens, he slept on the flower-bed which was always kept ready for Sassī. The gardeners informed their mistress of the destruction of the gardens and Sassī with her friends came to chastise the trespassers. But when she saw Punnū lying in her flower-bed her anger turned to jov. Their eyes met and they fell in love. Punnū then lived happily with her and the prisoners and his companions were asked to return to Kecem. When 'Ali came to know of his son's behaviour, his sorrow was great and he was very unhappy. His other sons thought of a device to bring their brother home to their father. Taking sweet wine with them they came to visit Punnū at Bhambor. Sassī and Punnu arranged great festivities in their honour. After dinner the guests offered them wine, which had its effect and they fell fast asleep. The brothers thereupon mounted their camels and, taking with them the sleeping Punnū, set out on their journey to Kecem. In the morning Sassī woke up to find that her Punnū had gone. She was sad and inconsolable. In vain her adopted mother impressed upon her that her low social status was the cause of Punnu's dramatic departure. Madness overcame her and she left barefooted for the kingdom of 'Alī. The heat of the sun

¹ By brother they meant caste-man or relative.

and the burning sands soon scorched her tender feet and. shouting the name of her beloved Punnu, she fell dead. shepherd who saw her dying was so much impressed by her death that he became a fagir. He buried her ashes and became their guardian.

The spirit of Sassī met Punnū in a dream and told him that she had given her life for him. He woke up to find himself in his parents' house. At once he prepared to return to his love, but his parents, brothers, and the tribesmen would not let him go. Helpless, he drew his sword and was about to strike himself dead when the parents gave in. Praying God that he might find Sassī happy he set off. When he reached her grave and saw the shepherd fagir sitting near by, he inquired of him the name of the saint whom he had buried.1 'It is not a saint but a peerless beauty who died crying for Punnu,' replied the fagir. Punnū at once swooned dead on the grave, which opened, and put out two arms to receive him.

We will now let Hāshim speak from his Sassī. The adopted mother of Sassī, hearing of her fate, comes to console her and advises her to forget Punnu, the source of her suffering.

> Dhoban mã nasīhat kardī ā dhīā pau rāhī dhoban zāt kamīnī kar ke chor gaye tudh tāhī bhaj bhaj pher use val daure laj aje tudh nahi hāshim vekh dukkhā val pāke ghuņd biloc balāi.2 •

The dhoban 3 mother gives counsel, Daughter, come to the true path. Considering the washermen's caste low, they (Punnū and his brothers) have left you. Again and again towards him you run, still you have no shame. Hāshim, throwing a veil on 4 see your sufferings; the Biloc is an evil spirit.5

¹ It is only saints and fagīrs who die and are buried in deserts. Ordinary people rarely go to such lonely places.
² Sassī-Punnū, p. 10.

³ A dhoban is a woman belonging to the washermen's caste, called

the dhobī zāt or jāt.

⁴ By patiently thinking over your troubles you will find that he was a source of sorrow for you.

⁵ Balā is a female evil spirit, but in the ordinary sense it means trouble and sorrow.

To this and other good counsels Sassī replied with firm determination:

Marsā mūl nā muṛsā jān talī par dharsā jad takk jān rahe vicc tan de marnō mūl nā ḍarsā je rabb kūk sassī dī suṇsī jā pallā us phaṛsā hāshim nāhī shahīdan hoke thal mārū vicc marsā.¹

I will die, but will not return at all from my path, I will place my life on the palm of my hand.² So long as life remains in my body, death in the least I will not fear. If God will hear the cries of Sassī then I will go and seize his skirt.³ Or else becoming a martyr, Hāshim, in sandy land I shall perish.

The dramatic fashion in which Punnū was carried off and the counsels of her mother and others almost maddened her and she followed her beloved. The heat in the desert was unbearable, and Sassī could not continue any further; yet she would not return:

Camkī ān dupaihrā veļe garmī garm behāre tappdī vā vage asmāno pancchī mār utāre ātash dā dariā khalotā thal mārū vice sāre hāshim pher picchāh nā mūr dī lū lū hot pukāre nājak pair gulāb sassī de maīhdī nāl shaṅgāre bālū ret tape vice thal de jīū jaū bhunnan bhaṭṭhīāre sūraj bhaj variā vice badalī dardā lishak nā māre hāshim vekh yakīn sassī dā sidko mūl nā hāre.4

At midday the heat of the hot season ⁵ increased. Burning air blew from the sky, felling the birds and killing them. A river of fires was flowing all over the sandy desert. Hāshim, still she did not turn back, each pore of hers was calling the Hot. ⁶ The delicate rose-like feet of Sassī with henna beautified, were in the hot sand of the desert like as roast barley in an oven. ⁷ The sun ran, and in clouds hid himself, through fear he did not shine; Hāshim, behold the trust of Sassī, in truth she did not fail.

A short while before her death in the desert sands the helpless Sassī, losing self-control, curses the thieves of her Beloved:

¹ Sassī-Punnū, p. 19.

² A Panjābī expression signifying the little value of life.

Punnu's, to show her humility.
Summer.
Summer.
Sassī-Punnu, p. 20.
Hot' was a title of Punnu.

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 $^{^{7}\ \}textit{Bhatt\bar{\imath}}$ is an oven in which corn is baked after being mixed with hot sand.

Shālā ¹ rahin kiāmat tā**ī** nāl sūlā de luṛke hāshim maran kumaut bidesī, lūn vāṅgữ khuṛ khuṛ ke.²

Please God, till resurrection's day, with acute pains affected, Hāshim, may the foreigners die an unnatural death, like salt slowly melting.

She even curses the camels which carried Punnū away from Bhambor, and the caravan:

Orak vakat kaihar diā kūkā suņ patthar dhal jāve jis dācī merā punnū khariā shālā oh dozakh vice jāve yā us nehu lage vice birhō vāṅg sassī jar jāve hāshim maut pave karvānā tukhm zamīno jāve.³

At last hearing the cries of woe 'even a stone would melt. The camel which has carried my Punnū away, please God, may she go to hell, or may she in love's separation suffer and like Sassī be burnt: Hāshim, may death on the caravan fall and from earth their seed disappear.

When Punnū inquired of the shepherd about the newly-made grave he replies:

Ākkhe oh fakīr punnū nữ khol hakīkat sārī āhī nār parī dī sūrat garmī marī vicārī japp dī nā punnū dā āhī dard ishk dī mārī hāshim nām makān nā jāṇā āhī kaun vicārī.⁵

To Punnū that faqīr relates, opening 6 the whole truth: It was a woman, image of a nymph, dead because of heat, poor thing, repeating the name of Punnū and of love's pain she died, Hāshim; her name and house I do not know, nor who the poor one was.

How Punnū dies at this tragic news is told as follows:

Gall sun hot zīmī ne diggā khā kaleje kānī khulh gaī gor piā vice kabare pher mile dil jānī khāttar ishk gaī ral mittī sūrat husan janānī hāshim ishk kamāl sassī dā jagg vice rahī kahānī.⁷

Hearing that speech, with heart's cramp, the Chief fell to the earth, the grave opened and he fell into the grave and the lovers met again. For the sake of love the woman's beauteous image mixed with dust: the story of Sassi's perfect love, Hāshim, remains in the world.

6 Explaining.

¹ Shālā=Insha Allah.

⁸ ibid., p. 24.

⁵ Sassī-Punnū, p. 24.

² Sassī-Punnū, p. 21. ⁴ Death agonies.

⁷ Sassī-Punnū, p. 24.

Dohre

Hāshim in his Sassī-Punnū expresses same manner as Jāmī expressed his in But in the Dohre he is a pure Ṣūfī and sin mystic emotions. Dohre has procured of the pious and the esteem of the learned Hāshim can demand a place next to Buhim not anxious to gain power and posi Bāhū, free from all fetters of sanctity of pīr ship, he wrote down the ideas which occur

By the word *Dohra* the reader migle believe it to be a Hindī verse-form, whic *dohre* of Hāshim are different from *dohre* be classed in two groups.

Those of the first group are somewh verse-form called *chands* and are 208 in belonging to the second group are called *di Diorā* is an old Pañjābī verse-form. As a 1 in folk-poetry, but in some rare cases poor it. Of the Ṣūfī poets, Hāshim was the But his *diorā* poems called *diore* are few in are only seven, published along with his and entitled *Dohre Hāshim Shāh* or *Daryā*

We now proceed to give a few special dohrie-and diore.

Hāshim reproaches love, calling him his inability to break the shackles of sham tied round the poet's feet.

Jã farihād bike te āyō otthō cā pahār omere pair janjīr hayā dā, ohnfi mūl nā ishkā zor nahī vice tere sace ākkh buḍ hāshim log karan gam aīvē asī bhet te

When Farhād was being sold then you came a the mountain, (but) the chain of shame (cor

Allāh Vāle kī Kaumī Dukān, Kashmiri Bazar
 Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 30.



feet you have not at all broken. Love, you have no strength in you, say the truth (that) old age has come (on you), Hāshim, people worry 1 uselessly, we 2 now have found out your secret.

Häshim explains the difference between the so-called lovers of God and the real lovers or seekers, as:

Rabb dā āshak hon sukkhālā eh baut sukkhālī bāzī goshā pakar rahe ho sābar phar tasabī bane namāzī sukkh arām jagat vicc sobhā ate vekkh hove jagg rāzī hāshim khāk rulāve galiā te eh kāfir ishk mazāzī.3

To be a lover 4 of God is easy, it is a very easy game; simply sit patiently 5 in a corner, seize a rosary and say the prayers. Thus will come rest, comfort and fame in the world and the people will be pleased 6 on seeing them; (but) Hāshim, this heathen love makes the unbeliever roll in the dust of the streets.7

Hāshim believed that those alone could realize love who had renounced all religion and faith, as:

Jis vice jang birhõ dā piā tis nāl lahū mukh dhotā shamā jamāl diṭṭhā parvāne ate ān shahīd khalotā ja mansūr hoyā madmātā tadh sūlī nāl parotā hāshim ishk aih jehā miliā jin dīn mazhab sabh dhotā.8

One in whom the battle of separation has commenced, he has washed his face with blood. The moth saw the glory of the candle and coming, stood a martyr.11 When Mansur was filled with divine passion then he was threaded to the cross. Hāshim, such souls alone have attained love, who washed ofi (gave up) all faith 12 and religion.

What happens after love has taken root in the human heart is well explained here:

- Worry because they think that love has ceased to have any effect.
- ² Meaning I. 3 Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 20.
- 4 Lovers of God according to the religious code.
- 5 i.e. qosha nishī.
- 6 Satisfied.

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- ⁷ The theologians termed the Sūfi's love for God as heathen love and the Sūfi as an unbeliever. Hāshim is here speaking ironically.
 ⁸ Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 14.

 - 9 Who realizes that he is separated from the Real.
- 10 He cleans his soul with his own blood, i.e. he sacrifices himself for Truth.
 - 11 He died for his love caring little for all else.
- 12 By 'faith' the poet means blind faith in the words of others without making personal efforts to find Him.

Tor janjīr sharīyat nass dā jad raccada ishk majāzī dil nū cot laggī jis din dī asā khūb sikhī rind bāzī bhaj bhaj rūh vare butt-khānne ate zāhir jism namāzī hāshim khūb parhāyā dil nū ais baith ishk de kāzī.¹

(The soul) breaks the chain of law and hastens to create heathen love. From the day my heart has felt the blow (of love) I have learnt well licentiousness (because) again and again my soul enters the idol-house, but outwardly my body is at prayers. Hāshim, being installed (in the heart), this qāzī of love 2 has well taught my heart.

We give below a few more dohre which express faithfully Hāshim's various mystic ideas.

Zahd ibādat cahe vekkhe nāhī hargiz dhiyān nā kardā Shāh Mansūr carhāyā sūlī ate yusaf kitto su bardā kis gall de vicc rāzī hove koī bhed nahī ais gall dā hāshim be parvahī kolō merā har veļe jīu ḍardā.³

The orthodox wants adoration (of God) but sees Him not, and pays no attention at all: 4 he raised Shāh Maṇsūr on the cross and made Joseph a slave. By what may he be pleased? There is no secret in this matter. Hāshim, my heart is ever afraid of his indifference.

Dil soī jo sej sajjan de nit khūn jīgar dā pīve nain soī jo ās daras dī nit rahan hameshā khīve dil be dard biādhī bhariyā shālā oh har kise nā thīve hāshim so dil jān raṅgīlā jahṛā dekkh dilā val jīve.⁵

That alone is the heart which ever on the Beloved's bed drinks its own heart's blood. Those alone are eyes which remain ever drunk. An unsympathetic heart ⁶ is full of disease, God grant everyone may not possess it. Hāshim, know that heart to be pleasure-loving ⁷ which lives by looking at the heart.⁸

Har har post de vice dost oh dost rūp vaṭāve dost tak nā pahūce koī eh post cāh bhulāve dost khās pachāne tāi jad post khāk rulāve hāshim shāh jad dost pāve tad post val kad jāve.

- Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 9.
 The Şūfī doctrines of Divine love.
- 3 Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 29.
- 4 He is not attentive and often takes contradictory steps.
- ⁵ Dohre Häshim Shāh, p. 21.
- 6 One who does not feel the pain and sorrow of others.
- 7 Rangilā literally means a pleasure-loving person; here it means one who loves God, i.e. one whose heart is coloured with the divine colours.
 - 8 He who feels the pain of others, Hāshim believes, is God's lover.
 - 9 Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 9.

In every poppy-head ¹ is the Friend ² and that Friend changes his guise. ³ No one reaches that Friend, this poppy-head ⁴ makes one forget the desire for Him. Then alone is the Friend recognized when the poppy-head is placed in the dust. ⁵ Hāshim Shāh, when the Friend is found then who will go to the poppy-head?

Ved katāb parhan caturār ate jab tab sādh banāve bhagave bhes karan kis kāran oh man dā khot lukāve murakh jā vare us vehre ate aukhad janam gavāve hāshim mukat nasīb jihnā de soī dard mandā valāve.⁶

Reading of the Ved and the Book ⁷ is a trick, because now and again it will make (the reader) a knower; what is the guise of a recluse for ? It hides impurity of heart. The ignorant enters that courtyard (path) and wastefully passes his life; Hāshim, for whom salvation is destined, they come to sufferers.⁸

Before closing this account, we will give one of Hāshim's diorā. It will clearly show the difference between dohrā and diorā:

Māhī pār arām nā mainū, mai mutthī teg nazar dī,
tarle kardī
sohņī khavār hoī jagg sāre, jo rāt same jhanā tardī,
zarā nā ḍardī
hāye baņī lācār sohņī maī firā bahāne kardī,
ghāṭ nā tardī
hāshim siddak sohņī dā vekkho ate hikmat jādū gardī,
parakh mitardī.

The Beloved is across (the river), no rest for me, I am lost, deceived by the glance's sword, I beseech (him). Sohnī is straitened in the whole world who at night swims the Chenab and without the least fear. Ah I,¹⁰ Sohni, becoming despondent, am wandering, making excuses but do not swim across.¹¹ Hāshim, see the sincerity of Sohnī and see in her the skill of a magician and the discrimination ¹² of a friend.

¹ Religion with its dogmas. ² God.

3 He is differently manifested in each religion.
4 Religious dogmas which make the follower forget Him, the Real.

5 Religion and its accompanying dogmas are abandoned.

⁶ Dohre Hāshim Shāh, p. 17.

7 Book stands for the revealed scripture. Here by Book is meant the Qur'ān.

8 i.e. Şūfīs, because they suffer at the separation from the Universal Soul.

9 Dohre Häshim Shäh, p. 31. 10 The poet now speaks of himself. 11 I have no courage to take the drastic step into the sea of conviction and so am making excuses for remaining on shore.

12 That she could distinguish between the true beloved and the false one.

CHAPTER VIII

KARAM 'ATT

Of Saiyid Karam 'Alī Shāh absolutely nothing is known beyond what may be gathered from his own poetry. The biographies of saints, so far as we have been able to consult them, ignore him completely. It is possible that one day the publication of some unpublished biography of poets and saints may provide us with an account of the life and work of the poet, though, up till now, no book has increased our knowledge about him. We are therefore compelled to fall back on Karam 'Ali's own work and the copyist's 2 note, although very little regarding him is to be found in his verse.

Towards the end of his work entitled Khiyāl,3 the copyist Muhammad Niwaz writes that the work was written by his master Saivid Karam 'Alī Shāh. Karam 'Alī, therefore, was a saiyid. The poet himself tells us that he met his spiritual guide Pīr Husain at Malerkotla:

> Maler kotla Karam Alī nī dittā pīr husain jamāl, pavāre de lar lagg.4

In Malerkotla, friend, on Karam 'Alī, Pīr Husain bestowed his splendour; hold the skirt of the dear one.

Though the poet met his pir at Malerkotla, yet the permanent place of his quru's residence seems to have been Vatālā (Batala) in the Gurdaspur district:

Karam Alī cal shaihar Vatale lok phān pai jānī nữ.5

1 Our attention was drawn to the existence of the poet by the recital of his poems by several faqirs and minstrels.

of his poems by several jaques and minstress.

2 Copyist of Karam 'Ali's MS.

3 After hearing the recital of Karam 'Ali's verse from jaques we decided to find out some written work of the poet. Fortunately we came across a slightly worm-eaten and forgotten copy of the Khiyāl in a corner of Mr Hafiz-ur-Rahman's Library. Excepting a few pages missing from the middle, the MS. is intact and is written in a legible hand. 5 Khiyāl 41.

4 Khiyāl 60.

Karam 'Alī, go to the town of Batala, people (here) are worrying my life.

Again:

Ā Pīr Husain dikhāī dittī hass hass kadamā de val natthī Karam Alī lā sīne maī suttī, vasā shaihar vaṭāļe dī gaddī.¹

Pīr Ḥusain came and manifested himself, laughing laughing I ran to his feet; Karam 'Alī, taking him to my breast I slept, I reside at the seat of Batala.²

At the end of almost all his poems Karam 'Alī tells us that the dark veil of his ignorance was shattered by the bright light of real knowledge imparted to him by Ḥusain. For example:

Karam Alī huņ vāre, vāre, pīr husain ne tāre tāre dukkh gaye huņ sāḍe sāre, hoye sattgurū meharbān kuṛe.³

Karam 'Alī now is a sacrifice, 4 a sacrifice, Pīr Ḥusain has saved, has saved him. All our 5 troubles have now disappeared (because) the true- $gur\bar{u}$ 6 has been merciful, O girl.

There is no indication of time in the verse. The faqīrs say that he lived during the reign of Ranjīt Singh. Not doubting the faqīrs, we think that he was born in the time of Ranjīt Singh but died when the English had taken possession of the Panjāb. Here is a proof of this:

Karam Alī cal shaihar vaṭāļe baiṭṭh phalaur dī rele.7

Karam 'Alī go to the city of Vatālā (Batala), sitting in the train (bound) for Phillaur.

The enthusiastic manner in which he mentions the train shows that he was still living when the railways were started in the Pañjāb.8

½ Khiyāl 32. He refers to Batala as the seat of his Master in several other poems, for example in khiyāls 47 and 68.

² Karam 'Alī, it seems, lived for some time at the spiritual seat of his gurū.

³ Khiyāl 14. ⁴ A sacrifice for his teacher.

Meaning mine. 6 Husain. 7 Khiyāl 65.

⁸ The first railway to and from Phillaur was started in 1870.

The poet most probably was a Qādirī because in one of the lullabies written for his son, Saivid Jalāl, he calls Abdul Qādir Jīlānī one of the protectors of the child.

Nabī Alī va hasan husain, aur pācavē hazrat fātimā haī kamāl Gaus alāzim shāhe jīlānī huai tum par ab diāl.1

The prophet, 'Ali, Hasan and Husain and fifth, the honourable Fātimā are perfect; they and Shāh Ghaus al-A'zam 2 of Jīlān are now all merciful to you.

That Karam 'Alī belonged to the popular Sūfī school is quite evident from his poetry, which lacks individuality and personality. It is in a way a versification of the ideas of various schools of religion, though Islāmic thought predominates and occupies a higher place than the others. Krishna is praised in one poem, his playing with the gopis 3 is described in another, but in the one that follows these Muhammad is praised as the best of them all and is described as the cause of creation. Karam 'Alī, therefore, is a typical example of popular Sūfīs flourishing in favourable conditions and in normal times.4 Besides these few hints on his life, all that we know is that Karam 'Alī was an earnest seeker after God and that after his initiation into Sūfīism by Husain he passed most of his time singing the praises of his hadi and through him of his God.

The Khiyāl of Karam 'Alī comprises four kinds of poems. Khiyāls are nothing but kāfīs composed to be sung in different musical measures. A khiyāl in Urdū means a thought' or 'idea'. It is because of this that the kāfīs, which were various thoughts of the poet and were composed at different times, were gathered together and named khiyāl. As the khiyāls outnumbered the other poems, the

¹ Lorī 12 m the Khuyāl.

One of many names of Abdul Qādır.
 Even the poet becomes one of the gopīs and invites Krishna to come to play the game.

⁴ There is a good deal of contrast between him and Fard Faqir. One lived in difficult and the other in happy times.

manuscript was named $\underline{K}\underline{h}iy\bar{a}l$. These $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}s$, eighty in number, are of unequal length. A few are very lengthy while the others are moderately long.

<u>Ghazals</u>. The manuscript also contains 17 ghazals. No Pañjābī Ṣūfī before Karam 'Alī wrote ghazals. These lyrics are lengthy and are composed in Urdū interlarded with many Persian and Arabic words. Pañjābī words too are not infrequent. The language, on the whole, is poor and his prosody is not accurate, and this fact clearly proves that his knowledge of Urdū was limited.

Loris. These lullables are twelve in number and were probably written some time after the birth of his son. Except the last two lines of the twelfth one, they are all in Pañjābī. In most of them, Maulā Alī or 'Alī is called the protector of the child. This may be an indication that Karam 'Alī was a Shī'a.

Dohre. There are two dohre, the Hindī chand of eight tukk each, and one $doh\bar{a}$ as in Hindī poetry. They are all in Pañjābī.

The book $\underline{Khiyāl}$ is marked by the complete absence of method or system of arrangement or any traditional praising of God, his Prophet, and the saints. But the poems are full of music and have poetic flashes. Karam 'Alī mostly employed popular metres and refrains for expressing his ideas, and this is responsible for a good deal of poetic beauty being imparted to his mediocre thought. Save the lorīs the poems are full of Ṣūfī effusions of a popular type, which make room for all doctrines and superstitions. The sayings of the $Qur\bar{a}n$, though engraved in Pañjābī verse, lack that charm which they have in the poetry of 'Alī Ḥaidar.

That Karam 'Alī wrote any poetry besides the <u>Khiyāl</u> seems improbable. In any case this is his only work known to us. Now we proceed to give a few <u>khiyāls</u> to show their poetic beauty and the Ṣūfī thought they contain.

Pīr worship is the most conspicuous element of Karam 'Alī's poetry. Like any other popular Ṣūfī he does not differentiate between the Beloved (God) and his teacher. His $h\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$ is the Beloved to him and always remains so.¹

Rondī nữ maĩnữ muddatā hoīyā kade deve ān jamēl, dil nữ tāb nahī ā pīr husain dikhāī dittī hoīyā karam alī maĩ nihāl, dil nữ tāb nahī.²

(I) have been crying for a long time, that he should come some time and manifest his splendour; the heart has no peace.³ Pīr Husain came and made a manifestation; (thus) Karam 'Alī, I became satisfied; the heart has no peace.

Again:

Karam Alī lai Pīr Husain shāh chej bichā ke soīyā nī.⁴

Taking Pir Ḥusain Shāh (with him) Karam 'Alī spread the bed and slept, 5 O friend.

The above shows the attitude of the popular $\S \bar{u} f \bar{\imath}$ with regard to the Beloved. He is satisfied with his teacher and abandons all idea of union with the Beloved through his own efforts, entirely relying on the $h\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$ to obtain it for him. The following will eliminate all doubt concerning the truth of our statement:

Koi lavo nī pīā nữ mor, minntā kar karke Is de badale merīai māē deo hor kise nữ ţor minntā kar karke haulī haulī tusī karo nī gallā tusī pāo nā saīyo shor minntā kar karke

Pīr husain sivā nā koī, karam alī dā hor, minntā kar karke.⁶

- ¹ In Panjābī Şūfiism, a soeker is supposed to drown himself in the $p\bar{\imath}^{r}$ and then meet God, but once he has found God, he becomes one with Him. Though he talks much of One-ness, a popular Şūfi is unable to feel or to understand it, and that is why his $p\bar{\imath}r$ always remains God and the Prophet for him.
 - 2 <u>Kh</u>iyāl 78.

J This is the refrain of the poem.

1 Khināl 79

⁵ Meaning that having accepted Husain as his pir he is fully satisfied and is living without any further search for the Beloved.

6 Khiuāl 73.

Let someone make the beloved come back 1 with many entreaties. In his place, my mother, send somebody else (with many entreaties).2 Quietly, quietly carry on the conversation, make no noise, friends; (with many entreaties). Talking sweetly of things take him back to the house; (with many entreaties). (Because) save Pīr Husain, Karam 'Alī has no other of his own; (with many entreaties).

Here in brief is Karam 'Alī's idea of God's omnipresence which he professes to see in all religions. For him it is God Himself who is working in each religion:

Masalā kar kar vāz karāūdā, kar kar lokā jamā bitthāūdā dīn diā bātā khūb sunāūdā, kufre islām phāriā hai tilak lagā ke matthe bassdā, gal vicc paihn janeu dassdā otthe kar bhajan na rajj da, parh parh oh onkaria hai kitthe isāi baniā farangī, kare larāi ban ban jangī hatth tere hai mandī caṅgī, dhar topī shimlā uttāriā hai.3

Talking of the doctrines You arrange sermons and gathering the people seat them, and (then) many matters of faith 4 you tell them, (saying) Islām has shattered the false.⁵ Putting the mark on the forehead You reside, wearing the sacred thread round the neck (You) show, there 6 singing the praise You never get satisfied, studying and reading 7 You have uttered Om. Somewhere You have become a foreign Christian and You fight becoming a warrior, in Your hand is good and evil, taking off the turban You have put on the hat.

Before proceeding any further it would be advisable to state here that the popular Sūfī's concept of God's omnipresence, though apparently there is no difference, is, in reality, a good deal different from that of an intellectual Sufi. No doubt like the others he also sees God in both good. and evil, in chastity as well as in iniquity, in truth as well as in untruth.8 But unlike them he fails to understand that

- 1 Or change his mind to go on a voyage.
- ² This is the rahāu or refrain.
- 3 Khiyāl 9.
 4 Islām.
- ⁵ Non-Islāmic religions like Christianity and Hinduism.
- 6 In Hinduism.
- 7 The Hindu religion, i.e. its scriptures.
- 8 Karam 'Alī, who sees God's presence in different religions as shown above, sees it even in the dwellings of prostitutes and gamblers as:

Jado tavāif de ghar jāvē, utthe kī kī nāz karāvē.

fine but powerful point which maintains the balance and establishes the superiority of good over evil, of chastity over iniquity, of truth over untruth, and so on. What is this point? We will now explain it. The intellectual Suffi knows that God in His Own-Self is Truth, Light and Purity. but when He reflects Himself then He does it equally in good and in evil. To understand and see Him both in his personal and in his Omni-Self it is essential that the seeker should be like Him, i.e. like His Personal-Self. Truth can see Truth and therefore only that man can see Him who has become like Truth. Once Truth is realized in Itself, then it is a very easy matter for the seeker to see Him reflected in evil and untruth. Therefore the intellectual Sūfī¹ concentrates all his forces to see Truth through the Truth, i.e. by becoming Truth. But the popular Sūfī's efforts to seek the Truth through untruth are soon shadowed by ignorance, hence the realization of Truth remains a hypothesis, and mysticism becomes a body without the soul. Except for some rare exceptions the popular Sūfīs eventually fall into ignorance, and believe that both good and evil, being two different aspects of the same God, are to be regarded as the same. And it is due to this great misunderstanding that their seats often became and become the centres of moral turpitude.

The musical tunes in which Karam 'Alī expressed his sentiments of divine love are popular in all Pañjābī, and more so in Sikh, circles. As an example we might quote:

When You go in the house of a prostitute what coquetry You display there?

and

Juai khānne de vice var var dāo khelē par sāre dar dar Entering the gambling-house You bet, but all in fear.

These aspects of God are misunderstood by the mystics and their followers alike.

1 The orthodox is saved from falling into untruth and ignorance by his adherence to religious commandments.

Mere sine vajdî hül ishk piāre dī turan phiran thi ājiz kītī laggī kaleje sūl, ishk piāre dī 1 eh dukkh laggiā sānū kārī hoye arām nā mūl ishk piāre dī je ikk vārī daras dikkhāve, maīnū sāre dukkh kabūl. ishk piāre dī Karam Alī nữ deve dikhāi mukkh yār dā rabb rasūl. ishk piāre dī.2

In my breast there is a stab; the stab of dear love. It has disabled me from walking and in my heart is a terrible pain: the pain of dear love. The disease that has caught me is serious, and not at all curable; the disease of dear love. If once you 3 manifest yourself all trouble will be acceptable to me; the trouble of dear love. To Karam 'Ali, let there be manifested the face of the Beloved which is (like) God and his prophet: 4 the face of dear love.

Sometimes Karam 'Alī employs, besides musical tunes. even the words peculiar to the Sikh social and religious literature. Here is an example:

Satt Gurã de carni lagg piāre satt gurã de 5 be mukkh hoïye mūl nā hargiz bhāvē tāne deve sārā jagg sijjadio mul na mukkh hataiye bharm da toriye tagg hijar farāk de jo kujh andar sītal hove agg jivē rājhā ban ban pālī, hīr de cāre vagg Karam Alī kar kar arjūjyā dil nū laiye thagg.6

Be attached to the feet of the true $gur\bar{u}$, of the dear true $gur\bar{u}$; though the world taunt thee, yet turn not thy face 7 away (from him). Turn not thy face from worship, break the thread of doubt. Whatsoever is in separation, let that fire become cool.⁸. May he live who as Rājhā becoming a herdsman grazes the cattle of Hir. Karam 'Ali, by making petitions let us win the. heart of the true $qur\bar{u}$.

1 Ishk piāre dī is the refrain repeated at the end of each line.

3 The Beloved, i.e. God. 2 Khiyāl 12. 4 It can be translated either 'the face of the beloved which is God and his Prophet', or 'which is like God and his Prophet'.

5 The rahāu 'piāre satt gurā de' is to be repeated after each line.

6 Khiyāl 59.

⁷ Do not detach yourself from the gurū.

8 Whatever pains and troubles are experienced in separation, they are finished because the fire of separation is extinguished by attachment to the *gurū's* feet.

In the poem given above the musical tune and the words satt qurā, carnī, bharm, and sītal are all peculiar to the Sikh religious songs of the Panjab. If one heard it being sung, one would at once take it for a Sikh song in some qurū's praise.

We have said already that Karam 'Alī, like any other Sūfī belonging to the popular school of thought, versified the beliefs of different religions and their various sects. Here are a few lines from one of his lengthy khiyāls which serve as a vivid example. He speaks of Krishna and his playing $hol\bar{\imath}$:

> Horī khelo biraj ke vāsī horī khelo koī urāvat hai lāl gulālī koī phaīkat hai pickārī hamare mahal maîkayô nahî ayo lok karat haî hasi.

And:

Pîr Husain ke jay duāre karam alī jāvē dukh sāre Govind govind ke gun gāre, tere janam kī tute phāsī hori khelo, etc.1

Play holī, resident of Brij, play holī, some sprinkle lāl-gulālī² and some throw syringefuls; 3 but why have you not come to my palace? The people are laughing.4

And:

By going to the door of Pir Husain, Karam 'Ali, all troubles disappear; 5 sing the attributes of Govind, 6 (thus) the pain of rebirth 7 will end.

Now we proceed to give specimens of his loris. Though they are childish and amusing, yet they are interest-

1 Khiuāl 62.

² Red vegetable powder thrown at one another during the holi festival in early spring.

3 Of coloured water.

4 People are laughing ironically at me because you have not come to play holi with me.

⁵ Troubles disappear because he teaches the name of God.

6 Govind, a Hindu name of God, but mostly used for Krishna, the

eighth incarnation of the Hindus.

7 Lit. hanging or execution. This is a Hindu idea according to which the human soul has to pass through many births before it attains salvation. The process of entering one life after another is abhorrent to the striving soul, who calls it hanging or execution. This eternal pain, says Karam 'Alī, ends by singing the attributes of God which procure salvation.

ing. They tell us that Karam 'Alī was overjoyed to have a son, whom he calls the light of his house. Such attachment is typical of a popular Ṣūfī.

Lorī lai ve saiyad jalālā khush hove dekhan vālā terā maulā alī rakkhvālā ghar karam alī de ujālā.¹

Hear the lullaby of Saiyid Jalāl, that the looker-on may be pleased, your master is 'Alī the protector (and) light is in the house of Karam 'Alī.

And again:

Lorī de de bābal hass dā, parh parh 'wajj hullā ' phir dassdā duī vaiham pare ho vassdā, karam alī carh anhad bassdā.²

Singing the lullaby the father laughs, and over and over repeats wajj-hullā; 3 the foolishness of dvaita departs 4 and Karam 'Alī, the soul mounts and dwells in the Eternal.

Towards the end of his work is a $doh\bar{a}$ which we believe the poet wrote some time before his death. In it he welcomes death and asserts that it would bring his troubles to an end. What his troubles were we do not know. Here is the $doh\bar{a}$:

Vakat ākhirī ā gayā, thalle maut paighām call karam shāh caliye, jhagṛe mitan tamām.

The last moment has arrived, the order of death is downstairs; come, Karam 'Alī, let us go, all troubles will end.

- 1 Khiyāl, lorī 18.
- ² ibid., lorī 4.
 ³ Wajj-hullā is the Pañjābī form of the Arabic vajhu'Llāh meaning the face of God. The Şūfīs of the Pañjāb repeat it as one of their spiritual
- ⁴ Duī in Pañjābī means the fact of being two, and it is for this reason that the word is employed for dvaita. Dvaita represents that school of thought which takes God and his creation as two separate units and not one and the same, as is believed by the exponents of advaita.

CHAPTER IX

Some Minor Poets Karīm Bakhsh

A Pañjābī manuscript in the library of Dr Hifz-ur-Rahman caught our attention. On examination we found that it was written in a very neat hand, on old Pañjābī paper. It could not have been less than seventy-five years old, perhaps it was more.

This work, as Karīm Bakhsh himself states in the preface, was a Pañjābī translation of Tafrīḥu'l Azkīā fi'l Ambīā of Abu'l Ḥasan; most probably the author was a pupil of this Abu'l Ḥasan, though he does not say so; but he has not forgotten to tell us that Abu'l Ḥasan was a disciple of Shāh Abdul 'Azīz Muḥaddas of Delhi.

The translation in Panjābī is entitled Tazkiratu'l Ambīā. At the end of the work, the translator attached a small Bārā-Māh. This Bārā-Māh Muḥammadī,¹ as he calls it, amply proves what we said in the Introduction, that some Ṣūfīs imitated the Vaiṣṇavas and sang of Muḥammad in the same way as the latter sang of Krishna. Not only this, but references made in such descriptions also point to Hindu customs, such as going to bathe on festival days, and changing of dress colours in mourning,² etc. The Ṣūfī's Mathura was Medina and he himself the forsaken Rādhā,³ while his Gokul or Bṛindaban was the place of his residence. The Ṣūfī's months and their names were Panjābī ⁴ as was

⁴ The Panjābī months are the same as the Hindu months. The names, too, are as in Sanskrit, except that they are somewhat corrupted and differently pronounced.

 ¹ Bārā-Māh Muḥammadī means twelve months on Muḥammad.
 2 See below the description of the second and the twelfth months.

³ Of course the name Rādhā was never mentioned. As we have already said, Hīr replaces Rādhā in the Pañjāb and so her name was used whenever it was necessary.

his concept of the weather of each month, and he described his mystic condition accordingly. To illustrate the truth of our statement we give below the Bārā-Māh Muḥammadī of Karīm Bakhsh.

Although we tried to discover the life-history of Karīm Bakhsh we were unsuccessful. We only know that his takhallus or nom-de-plume was 'badar'. His custom of using 'b' in the place of 'v' indicates that he belonged either to the Jullundur or to the Hoshiarpur district. He was a Ṣūfī, for an orthodox Muhammadan would not write in the strain in which he wrote his $B\bar{a}r\bar{a}-M\bar{a}h$.

Bārā-Māh Muḥammadī²

Cetar, the first month of the year Cetar cinttā har dam camke, taraf madīne jāvā maī pakaŗā jālī roze sandī ro ro hāl sunāvā maī bhā bichoŗe biyog vikhāya vasalo pāṇī pāvā maī je kar yārī kare nasībā badar pīā aṅg lāvā maī

Vesākh, the second month of the year Karan besākh taiyārī saīyā ralmil nahāvan jāvan nữ uṭṭh uṭṭh pave palaṅg darindā maī tattī de khāvan nữ maī tattī te tatt bhalattī jamī darad uṭhāvan nữ tere bājh rasūlā kehrā kaddā hāl sunāvan nữ

Jeth, the third month

Jethõ heth gamã de āi darad bichorā khādā je jald madīne saddo hazrat nahī ājiz mar jādā je khāk sare te cāk garībā jogī bhes baṭādā je āi jān labā te hazrat dam dam darad satādā je

Hār, the fourth month

Hār mahīne hāre ghatā ro ro hāl bajāvā maī dūtī dushman kull zamānā kyō kar jān bacāvā maī corī chuppe bhāiyā kolō taraf madīne jāvā maī oh kehrā din bhāgī bharyā jad piyā ang lāvā maī

Tazkiratu'l Ambīā, Preface.
 Tazkiratu'l Ambīā, pp. 211-12.

Sāvan, the fifth month

Sāvan saun nā birhō dēdā ro ro cīkā mārā maī aih maihbūb habīb khudā de kis dar jāye pukārā maī dushman pāle dūtī vehrā kikar umar guzārā maī āī jān labā te jānī jān tere tō vārā maī

Bhādrõ, the sixth month

Bhādrō bhāh bichore bhavakī, jal bal kolā hovā gī khālī maihal ḍarāvan saīyo, hāju hār parovā gī ghar de vālī zāt nā pucchī, kis agge jā rovāgī cal madīne khāvind agge hun hatth bannh khalovāgī

Asoj, the seventh month

Asoj ās nahī kujh bākī maī āsī kurlādī hā tere dard bichore hazrat khūn jigar dā khādī hā likkhiā lekh nasīb azal dā ai jholī hun pādī hā sarvare ālam dohī jahānī terī golī bādī hā

Kattak, the eighth month

Kattak kaun sune fariādā tū sarvar sultānā hai tū mahbūb rasūl khudā dā vālī dohī jahānī hai terī khātir paidā hoyā, jo jimīā asmānā hai duniā andar hashar dihaŗe tū mera khasmānā hai

Magghar, the ninth month

Magghar mukk rahi hã hazrat āy karo dil dārī maī lakkh lakkh vārī vārī jāvā ghol ghatā ikk vārī maī khesh kabīlā ghol ghumāvā ho kurbān nakkārī maī je ikk jhāt measar āve dohi jahānī tārī maī

Poh, the tenth month

Poh mahīne sarvar bājhõ jo saṅg mere bītī je shālā dushman nāl nā hove jahī bichore kītī je kī ākkhā maī ishk kavliā maut āpe maṅg lītī je zaihar payālī ishke vālī mīt akkhī maī pītī je

Māgh, the eleventh month

Māhī māgh nā maī ghar āye khālī sej darāvegī paīyā barafā sardī shurakī, sardī pīr khapāvegī belī melī saṅg nā belī badar havelī khāvegī ah hazrat didār vikkhāo thok kaleje jāvegī

Phagan, the twelfth month

Phagan bhukkhī sūhe sāde taī bājhō kujh yād nahī guzariā sāl nā sajjan āye jā koī faryād nahī aih magbūl rasul khudā de bin tere dil shād nahī jāy pukārā vice madīne kyō hundī imdād nahī.

- 'In cetar, worry is ever lively; I should go to Medina; (and) holding the lattice 1 attached to the tomb, 2 weeping, weeping I tell my state; the fire of separation has disunited us; on it I pour the water of union; if destiny ordains our friendship, badar, I would embrace the dear one.
- 'In vesākh, my friends 8 make preparation to go together to bathe,4 my bed 5 rises and attacks me like a wild beast to eat me, the hot one; I, the hot one, enveloped with heat, am born to undergo pain; without you, O apostle (Muhammad), whom should I find to tell my condition to ? 6
- 'In jeth, I am buried under sorrow, the pain of separation devours me; call me soon to Medina, O Hazrat, or poor I shall die; (smearing) ashes on the head 8 I, the poor cowherd, change into a yogi's garb; I am near death, O Hazrat, every minute pain troubles me.
- 'In the month of $h\bar{a}r$, I heave sighs and, crying, sing my tale; the whole age is a back-biting enemy; 10 how can I save my life? Hiding and in secret from my brothers 11
- ¹ The walls of the tombs of great Muhammadan celebrities in India generally have latticed walls, and visitors are not allowed beyond them.
- The tomb of the Prophet.
 In vaisākh or vesākh falls the festival of the New Year's day when the Hindus, especially Hindu women, go to the river or some such place to bathe. Generally fairs are held outside the bathing-places, where people enjoy themselves.

 5 He imagines that in the absence of the dear one the bed assumes a

cruel aspect as if it wanted to eat him up.

- 6 Meaning, 'whom could I find greater than you to whom to tell my sorrow?
- 7 'I am buried under sorrow' is a Pañjābī expression meaning that sorrow has overpowered me.

8 A Hindu yogīc practice. A sign of renunciation.

9 When Rājhā could not obtain Hir in marriage he became a yogī or jogī, a Hindu recluse. The poet forgets that he is replacing the heroine and so it could not be Rājhā but Hir.

10 'The world talks against me behind my back. Between the separation from you and an unsympathetic world, how am I to live?'
11 Here the poet again becomes Hir and says that like her he goes to

meet Rājhā (Rasul) without her brothers' knowledge.

towards Medina I go; what a lucky day that will be when I embrace my dear one.

'In sāvan, separation does not let me sleep, weeping, weeping I scream; ah beloved, dear to God.¹ to which door shall I go and call?² Enemies whom I cherished, all of them slander me; how shall I pass my life?³ Life has come to the lips (I am near death). O my life, I sacrifice my life for you.

'In bhādrō, the fire of separation has kindled; I will burn and become coal; these vacant palaces frighten me, O friends; 4 a garland of tears will I make; the master of the house 5 has not asked for me. 6 Before whom shall I go and weep? 7 Let us go to Medina; before my Lord with joined hands shall I stand. 8

'In asoj, no more hope remains, I, the sinner, am wailing; because of 9 the pain of separation from you, O Hazrat, I am tasting the blood of my heart; my destiny was written in eternity, and that I am now receiving in my bosom: Lord of the world in both the worlds, I remain your humble slave.

'In kattak, who will hear my complaints (when) you are sovereign and Lord? ¹⁰ you the beloved apostle ¹¹ of God, are master of both the worlds; for you alone was created

- Muhammad, whom God declares as his dear one in some hadis.
- 2 For help.
- 3 Those whom I loved and cared for have turned out to be backbiting enemies.
 - 4 Girl friends.
 - 5 Meaning, 'master of my body'.

6 Zāt, which literally means caste, species or essence, is here employed

in a different sense, implying that he has not asked for my person.

- ⁷ If a husband, not caring for his wife, leaves her, she approaches people who, intervening, influence him and make him accept her again. But in this case Muhammad, the beloved of God, is the husband, and so there remains no one to influence him.
 - 8 The Indian and especially the Hindu way of begging pardon.

9 Due to the pain of your absence.

10 'When you are the only Lord who would dare to attend to my complaints against you?'

11 The Prophet Muhammad.

all that is sky and earth; in this world my days are like the last judgement, you are my Lord.1

'In magghar I am ending my day,² O Ḥaẓrat, come and hearten me; lakh and lakh times I may be sacrificed for you, but let me be sacrificed once and for all; I will sacrifice my family and friends ³ and I, worthless one, being devoid of quality, will sacrifice myself; if I get one favourable glance, I am saved in both worlds.

'In the month of poh, without the Lord, what has happened to me? O God, grant it may not happen, even to an enemy, what separation has done to me; what should I, a morsel of love, say? I have myself asked for death; the cup of love's poison I have drunk with closed eyes.

'In māgh, my love has not come home, the empty bed will frighten me; the snows have fallen, the cold has increased, the pain of the cold will trouble me; the friend and companion is not with me, badar, the empty building will eat me; ah! Hazrat, give me a glimpse of you (or else) the injury will reach my heart.

'In phagan I am hungry, red has become plain, without you I remember nothing; the year has passed, the dear one has not come, of that I do not complain. O God's approved apostle, without you my heart is not happy; shall I go and call in Medina? Why have I not been helped?

- ¹ The confusion and turnult is followed by the day of resurrection. Then the faithful will be saved. The poet here reminds the Prophet that after this separation he would have a better lot, being his faithful follower.
- 2 'I am approaching my end.'
 3 There is a custom among the Pañjābīs that in order to ward off evil from a person, money or some other article is passed over his head and is then distributed among the poor, or (if an eatable) thrown away to animals or birds.
 - 4 Hungry for union.

⁵ An abandoned woman, according to Hindu custom, is not supposed to wear red (the Hindu auspicious colour) and decorated dresses. Her clothes are simple and colourless.

6 Because, being himself devoid of good actions, he placed his hope in the divine Grace.

Rahādur

A few extant pages of a Panjābī manuscript in the library of Dr Hifz-ur-Rahman contain some compositions of a poet named Bahādur. Judging from the language and the Ṣūfī beliefs we can place this unknown poet somewhere between the years A.D. 1750 and 1850. He tells us that, being a passionate man, he trespassed on the rights of other people, which turned friends into enemies, and he was insulted almost every day. Then he met his teacher Pīr Muḥammad who, throwing a veil over his past, put him on the path of divine love. Bahādur thenceforward became a wandering faqīr and it is because of this that he designates himself a gandīlā, or nomad, as:

Meri zāt gandīlī āhī har dam maṅgdī fazal ilāhī asī gaṅdīle zāt kamīne sabh koi sāthō ḍardā maṅgan khair jāīye jis veṛhe dur dur chur chur kardā āpe jhiṛkē āpe dēvē sāthō kujh nā sardā.

My tribe is nomad (and) ever begs ¹ God's compassion; I am a nomad, low of caste ² and all people fear me; in whatever street I go to beg, it says, go away, go away. ³ You ⁴ yourself reproach me, and you yourself give. ⁵ I am capable of nothing.

As is evident from his verse Bahādur was very much influenced by the Vedānta philosophy, but in rather a crude way. Other Hindu doctrines, such as karma, yoga, and $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, also influence his personal Ṣūfī convictions. The cosmogony of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, however, was the most cherished conviction of Bahādur. He calls it a $bang\bar{a}lan$, i.e. a woman

- 1 The nomad tribes in the Panjab often live by begging.
- ² The nomads are considered to be of low caste by Panjabis of all denominations.
- 3 The nomads, being casteless and dirty in their habits, are avoided by the people of the street where they go to beg. They are kept at a distance but are given alms.
 - 4 Meaning God.
- 5 The poet wants to say that God in one of His aspects scolds him through the people of the street where he goes to beg, and in another gives him alms through the same people.

magician of Bengal,¹ and he composed a work on the subject called Bangālan-Nāmā.²

It would be unwise, after the perusal of the two extant pages of this work, to discuss Bahādur's conception of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$. But it would not be out of place to refer here to what the poet meant by it. To him $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ was an imperceptible power which could play with man's physical and spiritual faculties, but it was not necessarily a deceptive malefactor. He attributed a mystic's indulgence in divine love, as well as a king's love of aggressive conquest and his ultimate disappearance from the world, to the magic flute-playing of this baṅgālan, māyā:

Ālim fāzil paṇḍit dāne, suṇ suṇ bīn hoye mastāne bhul gaī pujā niyat dugāne, aisī prem jharī sir pāī dekho kaun baṅgālan āī, aisī raskar bīn bajāī mīr malik bādshāh unānī, dāve thakke kar naphsānī khir khir bāg hoye gul fānī, rahī hukumat nā ikk rāī dekho kaun baṅgālan āī, aisī raskar bīn bajāī.3

The learned, scholars, paṇḍits and wise men, listening to the flute become intoxicated; $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}^4$ forgotten, they have now another intention, such magic of love has been put in their head.⁵ See what baṅgālan has come and how perfectly she has played the flute! Mīrs, maliks ⁶ and the Greek emperor ⁷ were exhausted with their worldly desires. The garden blossomed but the flowers have faded, ⁸ not a grain of authority remains. See what baṅgālan has come, and how perfectly she has played the flute!

- 1 Bengal was known to be the home of magic and sorcery, and Bengali women were thought to be the most proficient in those arts. It is for this reason that Bahādur calls $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ a $bang\bar{a}lan$.
- ² The two extant pages of the MS. are in the above-mentioned Library.
 - 3 Bangālan-Nāmā.
- 4 $P\bar{u}j\ddot{a}$ here indicates the religious dogmas and not the Hindu cult ritual.
- ⁵ Magic words are often blown or whispered on the head of the person whom the magician desires to bring under control.
 - 6 These are the titles of Mussulman kings and noblemen.
 - 7 Alexander the Great.
- ⁸ The kings and emperors, who, says the poet, blossomed and faded like flowers after a short-lived glory.

Bahādur's idea about the attainment of Unity is expressed in the following couplet:

Sāng sabar gudelā kalmā gur eh sāz batāyā kasrat band namāz dhundhāliö rāh vaihdat de lāyā.

Put on the guise of patience, take the rug of the kalmā.¹ This method the teacher has taught me. By the prayers of an ascetic he has brought me out of the fog,² and put me on the road to unity.

Bahādur's style, though apparently simple and easy, is really somewhat complicated. He employs words and terms which are common but subtle in meaning, which fact makes the task of literal translation more than usually difficult. He is not very profound, and his understanding of Ṣūfīism seems crude but practical. It would be unjust to say more as we have only a few specimens of his poetry before us.

An Unknown Poet

Another set of pages of an extant manuscript helps us in the study of Ṣūfī poetry. The poems contained in these pages are in the Pañjābī language as it is spoken in the south-east Pañjāb, overlaid with Hindī and Persian words. The work contains no reference to the author or to the time and place of composition. The only indication of time is the style, which clearly shows that it was written in the eighteenth century A.D.

The poems are the only ones of their kind, as they expound the Ṣūfī doctrines as then understood in the Pañjāb. In a poem partly illegible the author states that the 'author of Khamsā knew it'. From this we can conclude that the author of this unknown verse was most probably a Qādirī Ṣūfī. Whoever the author may have been, the verse is of great value.

This indicates the particular kind of dress that wandering Şūfīs are supposed to put on.
Out of ignorance.

11

xplains the four stages of the disciple or the

jān piāre, har har jāko taur nayāre sakhupat jāno tarayāpad kā sirar pacchāno sūt pacchāno, bhī malkūt supan ko jāno jabrūt pacchāno tarayāpad lāhūt ko jāno.

four stages, dear, each one of which has separate at, supan, sakhupat and tarayāpad, of these know The jāgrat state recognize as nāsūt,¹ and know stands for supan; recognize sakhupat as jabrūt,³ t tarayāpad is lāhūt.⁴

ing poem presents the original Ṣūfī belief livine Spirit is infused into the human spirit egins to feel with the former, then is attained *i'l-Haqq*:

h ko man më dhäro yānī hak ko hak më dāro anī kare tab jan hak më kalī dhare i dhayān lagāyā ho har har më samāyā.

eat Essence (Truth) in your mind, that is to say, to the Real. One who performs such an action gence ⁵ on the Real. He who has thus fixed his coming God has entered into God.⁶

nce of a $p\bar{\imath}r$ was indispensable for a Ṣūfī slāmic lands. In India, under the influence lt, the $p\bar{\imath}r$ was no longer sought after for guidance but in order to represent God to til the disciple lost his individual soul in

rat is the stage of humanity.
e stage of the angels.
hird stage, that of power.
ist stage, that of Divinity.
iere means citt or the awakened mind.
s with the following of the great Al-Hallāj:

is mingled in my spirit even as wine is mingled with water.

ything touches Thee, it touches me, lo in every case art I.

om Professor Nicholson's The Mystics of Islam, p. 151.)

that of his pir he could not merge in the Great Soul. This s explained in the following lines:

> Tan man gur më mär ke gur apana märo Mahāmath mõ dār ke auhang 1 pukāro.

Slaving body and soul in the teacher, slay your own entity, and then, merging this 2 in the Great-Essence, call 'I am'.3

The poet then proceeds to explain some other doctrines and dogmas, but much of the MS. is illegible. We give two of the remaining legible poems which represent the mystic beliefs of the poet.

Jad berangī rang banāyā vayfātī ho rūp vikhāyā berangī se rang liyāā dīn kufar ho jang racāyā jad berangī rang gavāī jhagrā jhāhā sab mit jāī bin murshid eh sirar na pave murakh andh malecch kahave.

When the Colourless (God) took on colour, becoming mortal (He) manifested Himself. He, the mortal, brought colour from the Colourless, Islām and paganism resulted and war commenced. When the Colourless takes this colour away then quarrel and struggle all cease. Without a pīr this secret is not found,4 and the fool (seeker) is called blind and unclean.

How the seeker conceives of religion when his self is lost in the Self is explained here:

Nūre ahmadī kiyā pasārā kyā pirthī kyā ambar sārā jab sunnā dā bhurnā bhuria avval nūr Muhammad uriyā yānī hai voh khatar-ullāh anfās avval hai kul dā maulā.

The light of Ahmad 5 spread itself on earth and sky, when doubt arose about the sunna,6 then first the light of Muhammad 7 burst out, that is, it is the illumination of God, but the Primeval Spirit 8 is Lord of all.

Sanskrit aham in Panjābī is auhang.

' Then put the gurā containing you, in God.'
Meaning, 'Then say I am the truth' or 'I am God' (aham brahm). The poet has given the first word of the formula 'aham brahm' and leaves the remainder to be added by his reader.

4 How, after the knowledge is taken back by God, quarrels and wars finish and the seeker is illuminated, can only be known through the

5 The revelation made to Ahmad or Muhammad which is Islām.

6 Practical example or sunna of Muhammad and other prophets who came before him.

7 Islām.

8 The Pure and Eternal Soul.

CHAPTER X

THE SUFT POETS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Before closing this dissertation we will speak of a few Ṣūfī poets of mediocre talent. Those Ṣūfīs who received inspiration from personal spiritual experience and acquired knowledge by assiduous study of religions and philosophies had begun to disappear at the beginning of the nineteenth century A.D. In fact the real Ṣūfī ceased to exist after Hāshim. Consequently the clear flowing stream of Ṣūfī poetry soon became a stagnant pool. The two chief causes of this stagnation were: (1) political changes, eventually followed by a new outlook on life; and (2) the selfishness of the gaddī-nishīns and the ignorance of the Ṣūfīs.

In 1801 the Panjāb proper came under the rule of Ranjīt Singh and remained under him until 1839. At the beginning of his reign, Ranjīt Singh was engaged in warfare, and it was only towards the end that he began to encourage and patronize the arts. His death in 1839 was followed by confusion and anarchy and gave a severe blow to the slowly reviving arts. This confusion was followed by fresh wars, and in 1848 the Panjāb came under English rule. The new rule saw the advent of a new age and changed the whole outlook. The Panjābīs were now whole-heartedly engaged in adapting themselves to the new life and the new cultural and scientific ideas; practical considerations had ascendancy over everything else, and Ṣūfī mysticism fell into oblivion.

The well-to-do and intelligent people being engaged in new activities, Sūfīism became the sole property of the gaddīnishīns and the lower classes. The former, like any other hereditary incumbents, found no charm in Sūfī thought. If they still clung to it and tried to propagate it, it was

not for love of mysticism but because it had become a means of earning a livelihood. They did not mind to what low state of moral and spiritual degradation it sank, so long as they could amass wealth. Most of them hankered after position and power and entered different trades and professions. Others entered Government service and left the charge of their mystic centres and the duties connected with them in the hands of paid servants. So the seats of Sūfī culture were soon plunged into deep ignorance.

The lower classes, however, still remained faithful to $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}ism$, and $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}$ teachers thenceforward came from these classes. Such popular $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}s$ lacked the education and culture of the orthodox mystic, nor had they the intellect and wisdom of the philosopher. To such $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}s$ mysticism was nothing more than the matter of a few dogmas. When they had accepted a $p\bar{\imath}r$, observed the $cil\bar{a}$, had worn a patched mantle and tied a woollen thread round their necks, then they were qualified $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}s$. Mental concentration, meditation, and intelligent study, which formerly occupied the major part of a $\S \bar{u}f \bar{1}s$ time, were forsaken.

Music and dancing which were often patronized and practised by the former Ṣūfīs in the nineteenth century were replaced by mujrā 2 and hāls.3 The natural sequel to this ignorance and degeneration was an utter mental sterility. The poets who were the outcome of this Ṣūfīism, therefore, were nothing but clever tukk-bands or rhymesters. They repeated the thought of their celebrated predecessors in different words but in the same style and verse-forms. Their poetry was a faint echo and a poor repetition of the

 $^{^{1}}$ All the $\mathit{gadd}\bar{\imath}\text{-}\mathit{nish}\bar{\imath}ns$ are rich people, and some of them are millionaires.

² A nautch-party. The dancers are generally prostitutes.
3 In ancient mysticism $h\bar{a}l$ was a mental state or condition procured through Divine Grace, but in later mysticism it is a sort of ecstasy mingled with frenzy. The $h\bar{a}l$ is played by the followers at the $\S{u}f{i}$ shrines. The person who plays it is believed to be possessed by some holy spirit and makes prophecies regarding the future, etc.

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ideas of those who preceded them. But they were hailed as poets because, as an old Pañjābī proverb says:

Jitthe hor nahi otthe harind i pardhan ai.

Where there is no other (tree), the castor-tree is chief.

Most of these poets wrote one or more siharfis or a $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}m\bar{a}h$ or a few $k\bar{a}fi\bar{a}$. There is a great number of such poets but we will speak here only of a few well-known ones among them.

Ghulām Mustafā Maghmūm

This poet was born in the middle of the nineteenth century. The preface to his work entitled Shamā'-e-'Ishq contains a few lines of Persian verse in which he introduces himself in this manner:

'My name is Ghulām Mustafā and my takhallus or nom-de-plume is Maghmūm. My place of residence is Maulvānī on the bank of the river. My district is Lyallpur which is a new town, but its water, air, and scenery are for the peace of the soul.' 1

In this passage Maghmūm tells us that Lyallpur 'is a new town', but then he calls it both a district and a town. We know that Lyallpur town existed long before, but the district was constituted on 1 December 1904.2

So it seems that Machmum brought out his Shama'-e-'Ishq only after 1904. But when was it written? After a careful study of the work we came to the conclusion that the poems found in this work were written at different times of the poet's life and that it was only towards the end of his life that he collected and published them.3

Shama'-e-'Ishq 4 contains Pañjābī poetry greatly overlaid by Persian words and phrases. It opens with the

Shama'-e-'Ishq, MS., p. 1.
 Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. II, Pañjāb, 1908, pp. 219 and 223.
 Many Pañjābis agree with us.
 This manuscript is the property of Dr Hifz-ur-Rahman of Lahore.
 It is not complete Only the first 72 pages are intact; the last few were lost during a fire at the owner's house.

 $kalm\bar{a}$ followed by the praise of God and the Prophet. Then it is divided into three $b\bar{a}bs$ or chapters.

The first chapter contains *ghazals* and $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}s$. The second $b\bar{a}b$ has a $s\bar{\imath}harf\bar{\imath}$. The third and last $b\bar{a}b$ of the manuscript contains women's sayings and comprises $k\bar{a}f\bar{\imath}s$ and *ghazals*.

The poems of the first chapter are full of Persianism. The poet, in the conventional way of that language, sings of the bulbul, the nargis, and wine. These compositions, to confess the truth, are beyond the comprehension of a Pañjābī knowing only his own mother-tongue and the ordinary Urdū. The poems of the second bāb repeat the same thought in different words and are full of Persian words. In the third bāb the poet speaks of his Beloved like a Pañjābī woman. There are very few Persianisms in this chapter.

From a literary point of view the verse of Maghmūm is commonplace. It lacks individuality and vivacity. None of the wailing and weeping for the Beloved creates any effect on the reader. His poetry, in fact, is like a body without a soul. But he seems to be a clever rhymer and he possessed a good knowledge of the Persian language.

 $Maghm\bar{u}m$ wrote another poem named $Qiss\bar{a}$ $Kapar\bar{a}$. We have not been able to find any manuscript of this work.

We now give two examples of his Panjābī 1 verse:

Sīn sall vichore dī jhal ve rahīā shamā vāṅg pataṅg jal bal ve rahīā suṇ hot balocā khān punnū merā din islām imān punnū. merā do jag mān tīrān punnū huṇ hāl sassī takk ān punnū tatī ret thalā tattī jal ve rahīā sute naram nihālarī ral ke punnū gal ḍāl bāhī gal vaļ ke punnū sutī chaḍḍ giō val chal ke punnū lio sār bimār nā val ke punnū.²

By Pañjābī we mean that which contains no Persian words.
 Shama'-e-'Ishq, ch. iii, p. 59.

Sin: I am bearing the pain of separation; like light and moth, I am flaming and burning; listen O Hot, Biloc Punnū Khān, my religion, Islām and faith are Punnū. He is my pride and honour in both worlds; Punnū, now come and see the condition of Sassī. The sand of the desert is hot and I am hot and burning. We slept together in a soft covering, Punnū, encircling our arms round each other's necks, Punnū (but) you left me sleeping, cunningly deceiving me, Punnū. Punnū, you have not inquired after the state of the sick one.

The above is incoherent in thought and misses the real s_{ν} irit. Here is another poem:

He hijar bichore tere dilbar jigar kaleje tāyā jalbal rahā vajūd tamāmī virhon cikhā macāyā marne andar shakk nā koī, dam labā par āyā jām vasal Maghmūm lurindā, turyā rūh tarhāyā.¹

He: your separation, Beloved, has heated my heart. All my body is burning, separation has raised the burning pyre. There is no doubt about death; life has come to the lips. Maghmūm desired the cup of union but (his) soul departed thirsty.

Ghulām Husain Kelianvālā

This poet was born in the nineteenth century. Nothing is known about him except that he belonged to Kelianvālā on the banks of the Chenab river. He has written two $s\bar{\imath}harf\bar{\imath}s$ on Hīr's love, entitled $S\bar{\imath}harf\bar{\imath}$ $H\bar{\imath}r$, and one $B\bar{a}r\bar{a}-m\bar{a}h.^2$

His style is simple and lacks that artificiality so noticeable in $Maghm\bar{u}m$. His thought was old but he imparted feeling to it. A couple of his poems are given below:

Mīm muṭthiā kuṭṭhiā ishk tere gaī zauk vicc vihā rājhā Hoī nafī terī asbāt picche chaḍḍī āpaṇī zat safāt rājhā hoī mahav tasvir maī husan tere dite vahim khiāl uṭhā rājhā bākī zāt hai zāt husain terī rahī lū lū de vicc samā rājhā.³

¹ ibid., ch. ii, p. 46.

² These small works are published all over the Panjab and can be had from any bookseller.

⁸ Sīharfī Hīr.

Mīm: I am enamoured of your love and in happiness I am lost. Rājhā. I have become negative for your positive and I have lost my own entity and qualities, Rājhā. I am engrossed in your beauty's picture and all foolish thoughts I have given up. What remains of my own substance, says Husain, is your substance which is present in each pore, Rājhā.

Hir replies to her mother's good counsel in this mannel:

Be bass mattī sānū dass nāhī
asā samjh leīai terī rass māui
kābe val karenī ē kanḍ merī
keḥrī nāl hadīs de dass māai
rājhū jān de vicc makān merā
ribā jīv nahī mere vas māai
māhī nāl Ḥusain fakīr hosā
tere kheriā de sir bhass māa!.¹

Be: enough, give us no more advice, we have understood your meaning, mother. You turn my back to the ka'aba, according to which hadīs,2 mother, tell me? Rājhā is the shelter of my life, my soul is not under my control, mother. With the beloved, Husain, I will be a fuqīr and on the head of your kherās will be ashes, mother.

Muḥammad Dīn

Muḥammad Dīn was a devotee of the Cishtī saint Shaikh 'Alī Makhdūm Hujwīrī' of Lahore. His pīr was Mirā Shāh, who, according to the poet, is buried in Lakkhanwal in the Gujrat district. He was employed as a munshi or secretary but, being an initiated Cishtī, he called himself a faqīr. His secular teacher was one Maulvī Maḥbūb 'Ālam. In the end of his aṭhavārā, he wrote a long supplicatory poem for the long life of his teacher and his progeny.

In all he wrote two sīharfīs on divine love, one sīharfī on his friend Muhammad Ashraf, of whom we will speak later, one bārā-māh, and one aṭharārā. All these works,

¹ Hir Husain.

² Muhammadan traditional law which has various branches and sections.

³ See Introduction, p. xvii.

⁴ MS. of his work, sīharfī No. 1, p. 7.

⁵ MS., sīharfī No. 2, p. 21.

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together with bārā-māhs by Muhammad Ashraf, are found in the manuscript 1 we have studied.

Muhammad Dīn's sīharfī on Ashraf is unique in Sūfī literature, not as a literary or mystic document but as the life record of a fellow Sūfī. Its worth is enhanced because it throws light on the methods of the popular Sūfī teachers. The teacher Mirā Shāh or his gaddī-nishīn locked up Muhammad Ashraf, an enthusiastic seeker, in cilā or seclusion and made him fast for one full year, after which period he unlocked the door and brought him out:

Sīn sāl hoyā cile vicc sohņe, sohņe murshid ne pherā pāyāī.2 Sin: when for a year the handsome one has been in $cil\bar{a}$, then the handsome teacher returned.

This seclusion or solitary confinement, as is natural, made Ashraf look different-most probably he looked like a The very sight of him was enough to frighten people. ghost. When he appeared in public, men and women fainted, but the credulous poet attributes this to the spiritual beauty which he believed Ashraf had attained during the period of seclusion.

> Rannã mard ho gaye bihosh sāre mukkh dekhdiā nū lagī sāg sāi.3

All women and men fainted, seeing the face they were transfixed.4

This seclusion, says the poet, procured Ashraf the divine vision, and, becoming a faqīr, he began to wander in the streets, but died soon after. His death is proof enough that he lost his health while he was in seclusion, although his pir and fellow disciples attributed it to his anxiety to meet the Beloved. This sufficiently illustrates to what a low state Sūfiism had sunk in the hands of hereditary successors and popular saints.

¹ This MS. is in the Library of Dr Hifz-ur-Rahman and appears to be in the handwriting of the author.

² MS., Sīharfī Ashraf, p. 15.

¹ With a say or spear.

³ ibid., p. 16.

Besides this siharfi on Ashraf which is written in a pathetic style there is nothing extraordinary in the verse of Muḥannad Dir. It is simple, commonplace and second-hand. We will now quote a few lines from his verse:

Wāu vakht nizā dā ān pahuncā
āvī gharī o sajjanā vāstāī
tere ishk ne mār khavār kītī,
kārī karī o sajjanā vāstāī
berī thilhī sī ishk mizāj vālī
pār karī o sajjanā vāstāī
Muḥammad dīn kaņḍe kharī sikknī hā
lāi pār o sajjanā vāstāī.1

Wāu: the last moment has arrived, come home, O friend, for the sake of (God).² Your love has made me wretched, make me right or fit, O friend, for God's sake. My boat of love's temperament has been loosed (from the bank), take it across, O friend, for God's sake. Muhammad Dīn, standing on the shore I am pining; take me across, O friend, for God's sake.³

Muhammad Ashraf

We have already spoken of Ashraf in our account of Muḥammad Dīn, whose fellow disciple he was. His sincere desire to attain union with God led him to accept a spiritual teacher and guide who turned out to be very incompetent. He lost his health, which failed in a $cil\bar{a}$ of a year's duration, and so died shortly afterwards.

Two of his bārā-māhs are found in Muḥammad Dīn's manuscript. A few lines from the pen of this unfortunate port will not be out of place here.

Māgh māli tere bājhõ phirniā mast dīvānī jī uccā kūkā āh vī aisī, sune nā dil dā jānī jī sabh jag ālim tere nūrõ sūrat dā lāsānī jī Muhammad ashraf sāī bājhõ aīvē umar vihānī jī.¹

1 MS, sīharfī No. 2, p. 20.

² Literally vā stāī can be translated 'for the sake ', but in fact it stands for 'for the sake of God'.

3 These lines in spirit, thyme, and vocabulary seem to have been borrowed from Fazal Shāh's Sohnī. When Sohnī was drowning in the Chenab she spoke in this strain.

4 Bā ā māh, I, p. 11.

In māgh without thee, O beloved, I walk intoxicated and senseless, sire. Loudly I wail, and similar is the sigh, but the beloved of my heart does not hear, sire. All the world has knowledge from your light, in appearance you are peerless, sire. Muḥammad Ashraf, without the Master life is aimlessly passed, sire.

Māgh majhī cher savele āvī
analhakk dī bīn bajāvī
mukkh tõ ghuṅgat caā uthāvī
ājiz tāī daras karāvī
noshā shauh kadī pherā pāvī
ashraf tāī yār malāvī.¹

In māgh, graze the cattle and return early and play the flute of ana'l-Ḥaqq. Take the veil off your face and let the helploss have a glance. Bridegroom Lord, some time visit me, and let Ashraf meet the Beloved.

Hadāit-IIIIāh

Hadāit-Ullāh was born in Lahore some time in the middle of the nineteenth century and died there in the twenties of the twentieth century. He was and is still believed to be a Ṣūfī. Whoever he may have been, his poetry is tinged with Ṣūfī beliefs, but there is nothing new in it except the words and phrases. All else is the property of his predecessors.

He wrote a number of a $s\bar{i}harf\bar{i}s$ and a $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}-m\bar{a}h$. Below is a 'month' from his famous $B\bar{a}r\bar{a}-m\bar{a}h$:

Māgh mahīne māhī bājhō, jo kujh
maī saṅg bītī je
Shālā dushman nāl nā hove,
jehī bichore kītī je.
Kohlū vāṅg jān tattī dī
pīṛh ishk ne lītī je
Jāṇṇaṇ oho gall hidāyat,
zahar ishk jin pītī je.²

In the month of *Māgh* without the beloved what has happened to me? God grant it may not happen even to an enemy, what separation has done to me. As in the oil-press the life of this hot one has been pressed and taken by love. They alone know this state, Hadāit, who have drunk the poison of love.³

¹ *Bārā-māh*, II, p. 12.

³ There is some influence of Hashim here.

CONCLUSION

Such were the Panjābī Ṣūfī poets from A.D. 1460 to 1900. The Ṣūfīs, who came to India with the object of leading the Indians to the Beloved by Muḥammad's path, did creditable work for some years. Then the old Indian vigour asserted itself and in its turn influenced the Ṣūfī beliefs. The mystics therefore absorbed the best of Islām and Hinduism and developed a new sort of Ṣūfī thought more Indian than foreign in character. Anxious to carry this new thought to the masses, they versified it in their language. In troublous times, the Ṣūfīs maintained with their preachings the mental balance of the different communities and, through their poems, sent the message of peace, unity, and love to almost every home and hamlet.

But by the end of the eighteenth century they had done their work. The need of the people was now different. Yet some continued to sing of the Beloved in the traditional manner, which fact imparted a monotonous and dull character to their poetry so that it soon ceased to be interesting.

The Pañjāb is unrivalled for the number of its Ṣūfī shrines. Every few miles there are one or two of them. There is hardly a shrine which does not possess some traditional verse of its own. The kāvvalīs there sing of the saints and their poetry. Credulous admirers still gather there in large numbers, to admire and worship the saints who, singing of the Beloved, were ultimately merged in Him. The Pañjābīs still consider themselves fortunate to have such noble, pious, and sweet poetry which inspires them to seek the Divine Love.

APPENDIX

HīR AND RĀJHĀ

Hir was the daughter of Cūcak, the Sial chief of Jhang. When still young her father betrothed her to Saidā, the son of Kherā, chief of Rangpur. Hīr grew up to be a beautiful maiden and the fame of her beauty spread far and wide.

Another tribal chief of the neighbourhood had eight sons. The youngest, called Rāihā, was very handsome and the best loved of his father. This aroused the jealousy of the elder brothers, who, on the death of the father, turned Rajha away without giving him anything at all. After wandering long in the wilds and wastes he reached the river Chenab. He looked around for a boat to take him across, and his eves fell on a lovely barge. He asked the boatman if he could be taken to the other bank, but was refused. Being very tired he persuaded him to let him rest in the barge for a while. Taking pity on the handsome youth the bargeman consented. Entering the barge, Rājhā lay on the soft and cool bed and soon fell asleep. A little later, he was awakened by a noise. Opening his eyes, he saw Hir standing by the bed. She was enraged at the impertinence of the boatman in permitting a stranger to enter her barge. But presently her anger vanished because Rajha and Hir fell in love with each other at first sight. To keep Rājhā near her she approached her father and procured for him the job of a cowherd. The clandestine meetings between the lovers were soon discovered. Rājhā was expelled and Hīr was forcibly given in marriage to Saidā. She, however, refused to associate with her husband. Rājhā arrived at Rangpur disguised as a yogī. He managed to get in touch with Hīr and through the good offices of Sahtī,1 the sister of Saidā, he ran away with his beloved.

They were pursued, caught, and brought back. They were judged by the priests, who ordered exile for Rājhā and close

Sahtī herself left Rangpur with her own lover the same night. But she managed to escape her pursuers, while Hir and Rājhā were arrested. custody for Hīr. Immediately after the execution of the orders Raṅgpur caught fire, and the misfortune was attributed to the sighs of the lovers. Hīr's marriage with Saidā was annulled, and she was allowed to go with Rājhā, who was recalled. With her lover, Hīr returned to the house of her parents where she was welcomed. Rājhā left Jhang for his own home with the object of making preparations to marry Hīr. Meanwhile the brother and uncle of Hīr, who had all along shown feigned courtesy, told her that Rājhā had been murdered. She fell down unconscious. In this state they administered a poisonous drink to her, as a result of which she died.

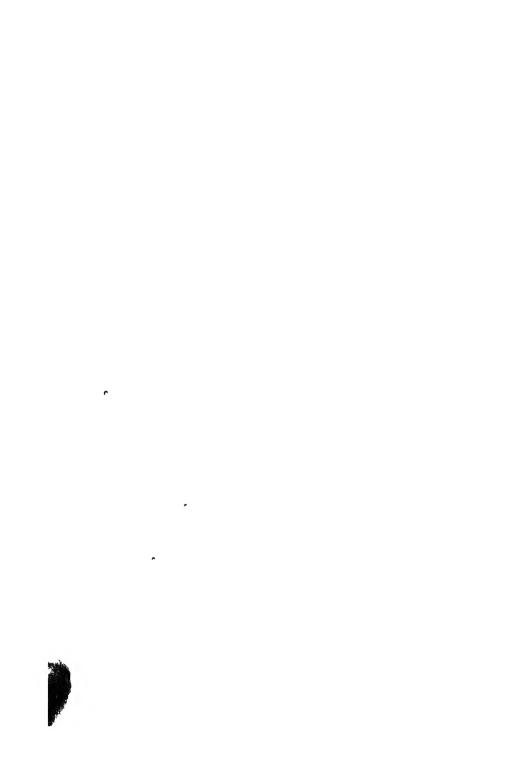
A messenger was sent to inform Rājhā that death had claimed Hīr. In haste Rājhā came to Jhang to ascertain the truth. He was taken to Hīr's tomb. The sight was unbearable for him, and he fell dead on the tomb of his beloved.

SOHNI AND MAHIVĀL

Tālā, a potter of Gujrat, had a beautiful daughter named Solmī. A handsome young merchant of Bukkhara, called Izzat Beg, when passing through Guirat fell in love with this girl. He stayed on indefinitely in Gujrat and so all his companions left him. Izzat Beg visited the potter's house constantly on the pretext of buying pottery, and in a short time converted all his wealth into pottery. Left without any money, he opened a shop. But his mind being full of Sohni he could not attend to business. The shop was soon closed and he became a menial in Tālā's house. Pleased with his work and appearance, after some time Tālā ordered him to graze his buffaloes. he happened to meet Sohni, to whom he confessed his love for her. Sohni, touched by his devotion and smitten by his beauty, promised him her faithful love. Their attachment, however, Was soon discovered. Mahīvāl was dismissed and Sohnī was given in marriage to a neighbour's son. Sohnī refused to live with her husband, and through a friend communicated with her lover who lived as a fagir on the opposite bank of the Chenab. At night Mahīvāl would swim across the river to meet Sohnī.

¹ Malivāl literally means a grazier of buffaloes. Izzat Beg came to be known as Mahīvāl after he had taken charge of Tālā's buffaloes.

But once he received a wound and could not come for many days. Therefore Sohni crossed the river on an earthen jar to meet her lover. On coming back she hid her jar in the bushes on the river bank. Sohni's sister-in-law discovered the secret and replaced her jar by an unbaked one. At night Sohni entered the stream as usual, but soon the jar dissolved and she was thrown into the waters. She cried loudly for her friend, and Mahivāl, who was impatiently waiting for her, heard her cries and jumped into the river. But she was drowned before he could reach her. Struck with grief, Mahivāl let himself go beneath the waves and soon joined his Beloved in the next world.



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